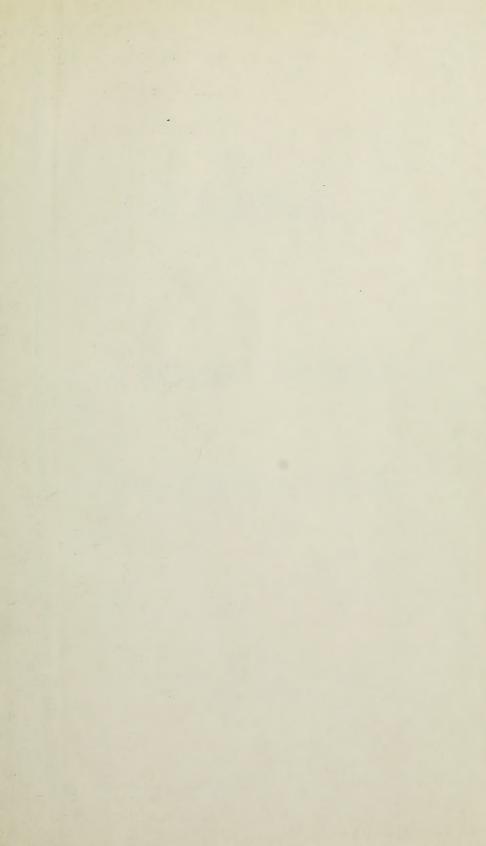


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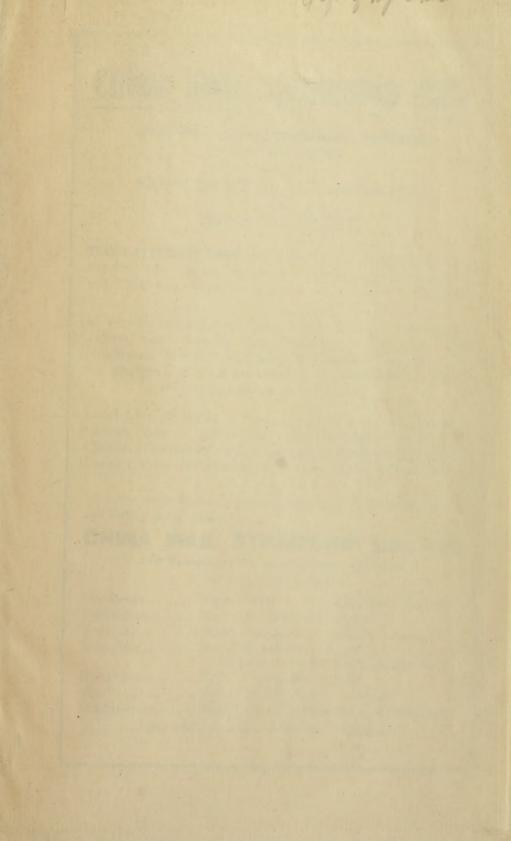
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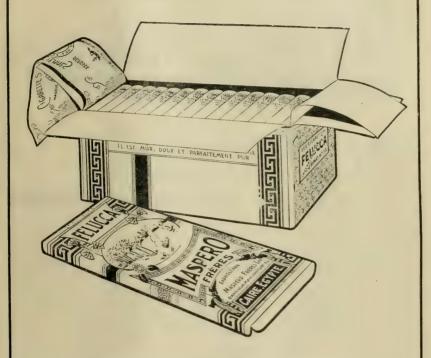
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CHINA

A Sourcebook of Information

Edited By

GEORGE E. SOKOLSKY

Manager, China Bureau of Public Information

with a

Foreword By

DR. C. T. WANG

China's Plenipotentiary to the Peace Conference

Published by
PAN-PACIFIC ASSOCIATION
SHANGHAI
1920



THE ORIENTAL PRESS, SHANGHAI

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PREFACE

- -----

The announcement that a party of members of the House of Representatives of the United States were coming to the East caused many organizations in China to prepare for their reception.

The Pan Pacific Association, Shanghai, has only recently been organized and its committees have not yet been fully formed.

It was however felt that the Publicity Committee could not permit this occasion to go by without a publication.

The short time allowed the editor and printer has made it impossible to include as much material in this sourcebook as might have been possible under other circumstances. Basic Chinese agricultural industries have been omitted. Many political documents have been left out. But it is believed that enough has been brought into a single volume to make it of some use.

The editor takes this opportunity to thank Messers. George A. Fitch and H. B. Campbell of the Publicity Committee of the Pan Pacific Association for their co-operation; Mr. K. P. Wang for preparing the charts and statistical tables; Captain Linson E. Dzau for the use of his maps; Mr. J. L. Cowen for incalculable aid; and Misses Rosalind and Mildred Phang of the staff of the China Bureau of Public Information for making this book possible.

Lack of time and recent events in China have made it difficult to obtain permission to make extracts from the books used in this compilation. The following books have proved most useful: Julean Arnold, Commercial Handbook of China, Vol.1: Frank Rhea, Far Eastern Harkets for Railway Materials, Equipment and Supplies: China Year Book, 1919; Japan Year Book, 1919-1920: Carl Crow, Handbook of China.

Editor.

Shanghai,

August 1, 1920.

. . .

FOREWORD

by Dr. C. T. Wang

China's Plenipotentiary to the Paris Peace Conference.

China is a country which is difficult to understand due to a combination of circumstances which do not exist in any other country today. The size of her territory is larger than that of the continent of Europe. By placing the map of Europe including European Russia upon that of China there is room enough left for another France and Germany. The Republic of China, consisting of China proper, Manchuria, Mongolia and Thibet has an area of over 4,277.000 square miles while Europe measures about 3,790.500 square miles, thus leaving a balance in favor of China of 486,500 square miles. The combined area of France and Germany is about 416.000 square miles.

Visitors to China are at once impressed with the multitude of the people who live upon this vast land. Long before Cathay is reached whether coming by way of the Pacific or through the Suez Canal and the Indian Ocean the outposts of this numerous population are met in one case at Honolulu and in the other at Penang. Singapore and the South Sea Islands, in each case thousands of miles away. Once in this land of Cathay nobody seems to know what the size of the population is. The commonly acknowledged number of 400,000,000 has been in vogue for decades. With the accepted knowledge of the fecundity of the race, it is safe to say that the population must be larger today than it was five decades ago.

Then again China is an old country. Americans often trace back to the time of the Mayflower or the discovery of America by Columbus. The English history becomes rather vague when one turns to its pages recording the occupation of the British Isles by the Romans under the great Caesar. We could even go further back in the case of France to the period when she was known as Gaul. But when we come to look up the history of China, events that happened B. C. have a longer record than what took place A. D. Confucius was a careful scholar and historian. He refused to include in his famous compilation, known as Shu Ching by the Chinese or as the Canon or Book of History by the Westerners, any but historical facts. No legends were permitted to be entered into that book. His work begins with the reign of Emperor Yao in the year 2357 B. C.

Besides being vast, populous and old, China has by far the most inadequate means of communications. Excepting the coastal provinces and other points of the country which are reached through river navigation and approximately 7,000 miles of railway, travelling in most parts of the country is carried on probably in the same modes as when the Great Wall was begun to be built in the third

century B. C. It often takes more time to reach certain parts of the country than to go round the world once.

Finally China is going through a period of great changes in all forms of the national activities. The basic change is that in thought. Instead of believing that the Golden Age is past, as we were once taught to believe, the people are awakening to the truth that the Golden Age is yet in the future. Every period of transition in any country is marked with severe struggles, and China is no exception to the rule.

All these go to show why China is a country which is not easy to understand. This little booklet is being published by the Pan-Pacific Association. Shanghai in order to aid western visitors in their quest for information concerning this old land which they come to visit. The Association has been brought about within a very short time. It is the hope of its officers and members that other publications will follow in the course of the expansion of the activities of the Association.

Shanghai, July 12, 1920.

BRIEF GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION *

The distance from the coast of China to the coast of California is about equivalent to twice the distance from San Francisco to New York.

The northern latitude of China's territory corresponds with a line running through southern Canada, and the southern latitude with a line traversing southern Mexico. From east to west China's territory extends over a distance similar to that between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of the United States.

Area and Populations

Since China has not yet carried out a proper land survey or census, the area and population of its territory can be given only as estimates, as in the following table (figures for certain other countries are added for purposes of comparison):

Regions	Area	Population	Density of population
China proper, exclusive of these Manchurian provinces. Manchuria Mongolia Chinese Turkestan	550,000	336,271,000 14,917,000 2,500,000 1,200,000	Per sq. mi. 219 41 2
Total, Chinese territory	460,000	6,500,000 361,388,000	84
South America United States, exclusive of dependencies Japanese Empire France (continental)	6,850,000 3,620,000 260,000 207,000	35,000,000 100.000,000 70,000,000 40,000,000	5 33 270 150

The population of the great Yangtze Basin is estimated at 200,000,000. Two-thirds of China's population is concentrated in one-third its area, being densest along rivers and in coastal regions. The three Manchurian Provinces and Mongolia and Turkestan offer vast areas of fertile lands and mineral wealth for development and settlement, but lack of adequate means of transportation and protection against brigandage have discouraged the settlement of these sections of the country by Chinese from the more densely populated areas of China proper.

With the exception of the area comprising the great central plain (about 200,000 square miles or three-fifths the area of the original 13

^{*}Commercial Handbook of China by Julean Arnold: Volume I.

American States), formed by the valleys of the Yellow and Yangtze Rivers, China proper is mountainous or hilly.

China is probably one of the best watered countries on the face of the globe. The Yangtze River, about 3.200 miles long, and the Yellow River, about 2,600 miles, rise in Tibet and flow cast across North and Central China, emptying into the Pacific. The West River, about, 1.200 miles long, rises in the Yunnan Plateau in southeastern China and flows east through South China into the Pacific. In addition to these, there are numerous canals and small streams, especially in the south.

Climates.

Climatically. China may be said to enjoy two distinct seasons summer and winter, with short autumn and spring seasons.

At Tientsin, or Peking, which are in the same latitude as San Francisco and Washington, the thermometer falls to 40 F, and rises in summer to 1000 F.

At Shanghai which lies in a latitude between that of San Diego and New Orleans, the winter temperature reaches 15° F. and the summer temperature 98° F.

At Canton, which lies in the same latitude as Havana, Cuba, the temperature rarely falls in the winter below 32° F. and rises in the summer to a maximum of about 98° F.

Generally speaking, considerable rain falls in China during the spring and summer months. The winters in the north are dry and cold, often with no rainfall between the months of November and April. The winters of the central or Yangtze River region are cold and damp, while those of the south are comparatively dry and mild. The autumn season is, generally speaking, pleasant throughout China. In the north dust storms are common during the spring months.

The average annual rainfall in the north averages 25 inches, in the Yangtze region 44 inches, and in Kwangtung in the south 70 inches.

The following sections give brief summaries of general conditions in all the Provinces and outlying dependencies of China. The areas and populations are estimated.

Province of Anhwei (Anwhay)

Area.—55,000 square miles.

Population.—20,000,000; 360 per square mile; densest in north.

Topography.—South of Yangtze, mountainous; central section, fertile, well-watered plain; north of Hwai River plains subject to droughts and inundations.

Agriculture.—Rice, cotton, wheat and tea are raised. The central section exports large quantities of rice; the north wheat, beans, sorghum, tobacco, and millet; the south tea and silk exclusively.

Minerals.—Coal is widely distributed, but is of low quality. Iron deposits are large and of good quality,

Industries.—Anhwei supplies a large proportion of China's native ink. Native paper is produced abundantly in the south. Wuhu has several modern rice and flour mills and is destined to become an important industrial city.

Communications.—Rivers; Yangtze (ocean-going steamers). Hwai, and tributaries. Railways; Tientsin-Pukow line through northeastern sections; projected line from Wuhu southwest to Nanchang in Kiangsi. Post offices, 79. Telegraph stations, 27.

Cities.—Of more than 100,000 population: Anking (capital), Wuhu, Pochow. Other important cities: Tatung, Hweichow, and Luchowfu.

Treaty port.-Wuhu.

Language and characteristics of natives.—Mandarin is spoken. The natives are simple, hardworking, and peaceable.

American interests.—Under jurisdiction of Nanking consulate.

Province of Chekiang

Area. -37, 000 square miles.

Population.—17,000,000; 460 per square mile; densest in north and northeast.

Topography.—South and west mountainous; large fertile plains in the north; rich agriculturally.

Agriculture.—Rice, tea, silk, cotton, wheat, hemp, indigo, sugar, and fruits are produced. Rice is the principal crop. Tea is grown in hills. Silk produces two crops, for which the Province is noted. Cotton is increasing in importance, the districts between Shaohing and Ningpo producing an excellent quality in abundance.

Minerals.—There are iron, coal, alum, and soapstone deposits,

but they are little developed.

Industries.—Silk forms the leading industry. Huchow produces the best raw silk and Hangchow the best silk cloth. There are two cotton mills with 50,000 spindles for the manufacture of cotton yarn. Kashing is noted for its brass and copper ware. Fans, umbrellas, joss paper, and Chinese pens (brushes) are made in large quantities in Hangchow. Shaohing produces China's best samshu (rice wine), of which it shipped 6,000 tons in 1916. The soapstone ware of Wenchow is famous.

Communications.—Waterways: The Province is a network of rivers, canals, and creeks, navigable by native craft. There is a steamer service between Shanghai, Ningpo, and Wenchow. Railways: Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo; projected. Hangchow-Wuhu and Ningpo-Wenchow. Post offices, 73. Telegraph stations, 34.

Cities.—Of more than 500,000 population: Hangchow (capital). More than 100,000: Shaohing, Ningpo, Huchow. Other important cities: Lanchi, Kashing, Chuchow, Kinhwafu.

Treaty ports.—Hangchow, Ningpo, Wenchow.

Language and characteristics of natives.—A form of Mandarin is spoken. The natives are enterprising; they are splendid seamen.

American interests.—Under the jurisdiction of the Shanghai consulate general.

Province of Chihli. (Icchlee)

Area.—116,000 square miles.

Population,—30,000,000; 250 per square mile: densest in plain toward the southwest.

Topography. – Mountainous in north and west; great eastern plain is hot and very productive in summer, but cold and subject to dust storms in winter, with streams frozen.

Agriculture—Sorghum, millet, wheat, Indian corn, beans, and peanuts, constitute the main crops. Wheat is sown in the late fall and harvested in early summer, after which the other crops are planted corn and beans being planted in the same fields. Other products are hemp, cotton, fruits, vegetables, and walnuts—The cotton is grown in the south, in short staple, and finds a ready market in America.

Minerals.—There are deposits of coal (anthracite and bituminous), limestone, and salt. The Province is particularly rich in high-class coal, with a number of large mines worked by modern machinery and methods.

Industries.—Tientsin is a great export and import center. There are nine woolcleaning works, besides hydraulic presses for wool, jute, skins, rugs, and hides, in preparation for export; these are under foreign management. Soap, candle, match, and cigarette factories with modern machinery and two modern cotton-yarn mills with 25,000 spindles each are among the industries of Tientsin. More than 1,000 tons of pigs' bristles are exported annually from North China. A cement plant produces 600,000 barrels annually. The coal mines and railway shops at Tangshan are big industries. Tientsin is the export center for North China.

Communications.—Waterways: Pei Ho (river) and Grand Canal, navigable for small boats. Railways: Peking-Mukden, Tientsin-Pukow, Peking-Kalgan, Peking-Hankow, and Peking-Mentowkow. Post offices 191. Telegraph stations, 76.

(ities. -Of more then 500,000 population: Tientsin, Peking (national capital). More then 100 000: Paotingfu

Treaty ports.—Tientsin, Kalgan, Kweihwacheng, Hulutao. Chihfeng, Dolon-nor, and Chinwangtao.

Language and characteristics of natives.—Northern Mandarin is spoken. The natives include Chinese Mongols, with predominance of Tartar blood.

American interests.—Under jurisdiction of Tientsin consulate general. American Legation at Peking has jurisdiction over whole of China.

Province of Fukien. (Foo kee-en)

Area,-46,000 square miles.

Population.—13,000,000; 280 per square mile; densest along coast and in Min River Valley.

Topography.—The Province is mountainous, the mountains running parallel with the coast. The coast is broken with many bays and three good harbors, Santuao. Foochow and Amoy. The climate is semitropical

Agriculture.— Rice, tea, wheat, sugar, bamboo, oranges, and camphor are the principal products.

Minerals.—Coal, iron, and potter's clay are the principal mineral products, though there are deposits of iron ore and coal that have not been developed.

Industries.—Foochow poles from the Foochow hinterland are exported in large quantities. The leading native industry is the manufacture of paper from bamboo pulp. The tea industry has dwindled from a position of first importance. Wanyao manufactures pottery on a large scale. Foochow lacquer is famous throughout China. The sugar industry is important, but there are only six small modern mills; it is capable of large development. There are two fruit canneries at Amoy with modern equipment. The camphor industry is gradually dying away, because of scarcity of trees. There is a large emigration of natives to Taiwan (Formosa), the Philippines, and Singapore.

Communications.—Waterways: Coastwise trade, Amoy, Foochow, and Santuao connected with Shanghai and Hongkong; Min River navigable for small boats beyond Yenpingfu. Railways: Amoy-Changchow, under construction. Goods generally carried on backs of coolie carriers. Post offices, 75. Telegraph stations, 16.

Citics.—Of more than 500,000 population: Foochow (capital). More than 100,000: Amoy. Other large cities: Changehowfu and Chuanchowfu. There are 22 other cities with populations of more than 20,000.

Treaty ports.—Amoy, Foochow, and Santuao.

Language and characteristics of natives.— The Amoy, Foochow, Shaowu, and Southern Mandarin are the principal dialects. The natives are independent and adventurous.

American interests.—Under jurisdiction of Foochow consulate for North Fukien and Amoy consulate for South Fukien.

Province of Honan.

Area —68,000 square miles.

Population.—25,000,000; 375 per square mile; slightly denser in north.

Topography.—Hilly on western boundary, with plains elsewhere; floods of Yellow River a constant menace; climate fairly severe; soil fertility good.

Agriculture.—Cotton, wheat, sorghum, beans, millet, sesame seed, and Indian corn are the principal products. The province is noted particularly for cotton and sesame seed.

Mmcrals.—Coal and iron are the principal minerals. The Peking Syndicate operates extensive coal-mining properties in Honan.

Industries.—Coal mining and brick kilns constitute the main industries. Honan pongees form a considerable industry. Otherwise the Province is agricultural.

Communications.—Waterways: ()f the three rivers, Yellow, Hwai, and Wei, only the first-named is navigable and that only in sections. Railways: Peking-Hankow, Kaifeng-Hsuchowfu, and

Kaifeng-Shensi via Honanfu and Tungkwan. Extensive cart traffic over poor country roads. Post offices, 87. Telegraph stations, 31.

(itics,-()i more than 100,000 population: Kaifengiu (capital)

Twelve cities with populations exceeding 20,000.

Treaty parts.-None.

Language and characteristics of natives.—Mandarin is spoken. There are few immigrants from other Provinces and few native tribes.

Imerican interests.—Under jurisdiction of Tientsin consulate general for region north of Yellow River and Hankow consulate general for territory south of river.

Province of Hunan. (Hoo nan)

.1rea.-83,000 square miles.

Population.--24,000,000; 280 per square mile; densest in river

valleys and around Tung Ting Lake.

Topography.—Mountainous, especially in west and south; Tung Ting Lake (75 by 60 miles) in northeast, four rivers emptying into it; plains south of Changsha.

Agriculture.—Probably no Province surpasses Hunan in agricultural wealth. Rice is the main crop. Tea, beans, ramie, sesame, bamboo, wood oil, vegetable tallow, and wheat are among its

products. It also produces excellent pork.

Minerals.—There is abundant mineral wealth. Antimony, lead, zinc, coal, iron, manganese, tin, and quicksilver are the principal minerals. Human produces a large proportion of the world's supply of antimony. The iron, lead, coal, zinc, and tin deposits are actively worked and are productive of much wealth.

Industrics.—Mining is the main industry. Native paper from bamboo pulp, grass cloth, silk embroideries and cotton nankeens are extensively manufactured. Hunan hams are shipped all over China. Bamboo manufactures are noted. Changsha is developing into an industrial center.

Communications.—Waterways: Steamer traffic on lake and between Changsha and Hankow; Siang, Li, and Yuan Rivers navigable, except during low-water season in winter. Railways: Changsha is connected by rail with Hankow and will be connected in a few years with Canton. Hunan is connected by roads with neighboring Provinces. Post offices, 57. Telegraph stations, 36.

('ities.—Of more than 100,000 population: Changsha (capital). Changteh, and Siangtan. No other large cities.

Treaty ports.—Changsha and Yochow.

Language and characteristics of natives.—The local Mandarin dialect is spoken. The natives are progressive and militant; they were formerly antiforeign.

American interests.—Under jurisdiction of Changsha consulate.

Province of Hupeh. (Hoo bay)

Area.-71,000 square miles.

Population. -25.000,000; 350 per square mile; densest on the plain.

Topography.—It is said of Hupeh that it is three parts hills, six parts water, and one part habitable land. The Yangtze and Han Rivers intersect the Province, as well as numerous lakes and canals.

Agriculture.—Rice, cotton, tea, and beans form the principal crops. Sesame, tobacco, wheat, ramie, and silk are also important products. Eggs and egg products, nutgalls, vegetable and animal tallows figure in the export trade of Hupeh.

Minerals.—Iron and coal are the minerals. The Tayeh Iron Mines of Hupeh are the largest in China.

Industrics.—Iron and steel production is very important. Hankow is called the "Chicago of China." It is a great collection and distribution center. Cotton mills, ore refineries, flour mills, iron works, oil mills, egg-products plants, cigarette factories, and cement plants are among its industries. Hankow is the center of the tea industry in China. The Province produces enormous quantities of fish. With Tientsin Hankow shares the bulk of the hide export trade. It is the principal export center for sesame, wood oil, cotton, egg products, hides, vegetable tallow, vegetable oils, and nutgalls.

Communications.—Waterways: Ocean-going steamers to Hankow eight months in the year; river traffic between Hankow and upper Yangtze, Hankow and Changsha, and Hankow and Laohokow (on Han River). Railways: Peking-Hankow, Wuchang-Changsha (to be completed later to Canton). Provincial roads many, but in poor condition. Post offices, 90. Telegraph stations, 39.

Cities.—Hankow, Wuchang, and Hanyang, the three "Han cities," have a combined population of 1,500,000. Hupeh has six other cities with more than 25,000 population.

Treaty ports .- Hankow, Ichang, Shasi.

Language of natives.—Mandarin is spoken. There are but few immigrants in the Province.

American interests.—Under jurisdiction of Hankow consulate general.

Province of Kansu. (Goñsoo)

Area.—125,000 square miles.

Population.—5,000,000; 40 per square mile; most sparsely poplated Province.

Topography.—Mountains cross Kansu northwest to southeast; south very mountainous, east and northeast large, fertile, loess plateau, north wild and uninhabitable; climate dry, with cold, dry winters.

Agriculture.—Wheat, cotton, rhubarb, licorice root, tobacco and fruits are the principal products. The Province is pastoral rather than agricultural, and sheep and cattle are raised.

Minerals.—Little is known regarding the mineral wealth.

Industries.—Tobacco, wool, and sheep raising constitute the main industries

Communications.—Waterways: Tributaries of Yellow River navigable during summer season for short distances for small boats No railways. Country roads adapted to cart traffic. Post offices. 21. Telegraph stations, 18.

Cities. -Lanchowfu (capital), population 500,000. Other important cities: Tsinchow, Siningfu, Liangchow.

Treaty ports .- None.

Language and characteristics of natives.—Western Mandarin is spoken. The people are mostly illiterate. A large number are Mohammedans. There are some Mongols in the north.

American interests.-Under jurisdiction of Hankow consulate

general.

Province of Kiangsi. (Gecongsec)

Arca.—68,000 square miles.

Population.—15.000,000; 210 per square mile; densest around Poyang Lake and in Kan Valley.

Topography.—Mountainous, except Poyang Lake basin; country around lake, marshy; Kan River drains larger part of Province; climate humid.

Agriculture.—Rice, tea, tobacco, bamboo, peanuts, fruits, indigo, and grains are the main products. Camphor trees are found in many places. Ramie is quite extensively grown.

Minerals.—There are deposits of coal, kaolin, and copper. It is estimated that the Pinghsiang coal mines, producing a million tons a year, could continue production for several hundred years.

Industrics.—Coal mining and the manufacture of coke and briquettes constitute a great industry at Pinghsiang, where modern machinery and methods are employed. The porcelain industry of Kiangsi is far famed. About one-half of China's production of grass cloth is made in Kiangsi.

Communications.—Waterways: Steamers through Poyang Lake and Kan River to Nanchang; Kan River and tributaries navigable for native boats. Railways: Kiukiang-Nanchang, Pinghsiang-Chuchow; line projected from Nanchang to Santuao or Swatow. The country roads are poor, most of the traffic being by water. Seventy or 80 walled cities can be reached by boat the greater part of the year. Post offices, 85.

Cities.—Of more than 100,000 population: Nanchang (capital). Kanchow, Kianfu and Kingtehchen. Six other cities of more than 25,000.

Treaty port.—Kiukiang.

Longuage of natives. Mandarin, except in the east, where a dialect of Fukienese is spoken.

. Imerican interests.-- Under the jurisdiction of the Hankow consulate general.

Province of Kiangsu (Geeongsoo)

Area. - 37,000 square milse.

Population: 18,000,000; 450 per square mile; densest on Haimen promontory and Tsungming Island.

Topography. -Great alluvial plain south comprising portion of Yangtze detta, 120 by 60 miles; land low lying, abounding in swamps and lagoons; noted for fertility.

Agriculture —Silk, cotton, rice, beans, peanuts, wheat, bamboo, vegetables, and fruits are the main products. Wusih enjoys the reputation of producing the finest silk in the world. Cotton is being produced in larger quantities each year.

Minerals.—The Province is poor in minerals.

Industries—The greatest development has been in the cotton industry. There are 25 to 30 mills with a total of a million spindles operating at Shanghai. The number of looms is increasing and promises rapid development also. Flour mills, oil mills, egg-products plants, rice mills, furniture factories, glass works, ice and cold-storage plants, match factories, paper mills, electric lamp factories, chemical works, shipbuilding and engineering works, soap and candle factories, cigarette factories, sawmills, printing and publishing houses, etc. are among the industries that make Shanghai the leading manufacturing center of China. Kiangsu's leading industry is silk. Wusih, Nanking, and Soochow are the principal centers for the manufacture of the silk cloth.

Communications.—Waterways: All the rivers are navigable, and the Province is interlaced with canals. Railways: Shanghai-Nanking; Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo; Shanghai-Woosung Country roads are poor and few in number, as water transportation makes them unnecessary. Post offices, 98. Telegraph stations, 62. Cable companies, 3.

Cities.—Of more than 1,000,000 population: Shanghai. More than 500,000: Soochow. More than 100,000: Nanking (capital).

Wusih, Chinkiang, Yangchow.

Treaty ports.—Shanghai, Chinkiang, Nanking, Soochow, Woosung.

Language of natives.—Throughout Province, Soochow or Shanghai dialect and Mandarin; in Shanghai, besides Shanghai dialect, also Ningpo and Cantonese.

American interests.—In eastern section of Province, under Shanghai consulate general; in western half, under Nanking consulate.

Province of Kwangsi.

Area.—77,000 square miles.

Population. - 6,500,000; 84 per square mile; south and southeast most populous.

Topography.—Mcuntainous, ranges running southwest to northeast; West River and tributaries have good fertile valleys; climate tropical in south.

Agriculture.—Rice, sugar, fruits, grains, bamboo, aniseed, and cassia are the main products.

Minerals.—Antimony, coal, tin, iron, asbestos, and galena are known to abound. Very little has been done to develop what is considered a great store of mineral wealth in Kwangsi.

Industries.—Although proverbially poor, the Province seems to offer much opportunity for development. The world's supply of star-anise is produced there. Cassia is also produced. Firecrackers

and leather are made at Namning. Wuchow has a hosiery factory, a glass factory. Fishing lines made from the intestines of a species of silk worm, which feeds on the camphor tree, form a specialty peculiar to this Province.

Communications.—Waterways: Steamer traffic on West River; launch service to Lungchowfu; motor boats ascend Fu tributary to Kweilin. No railways. Country roads poor and in bad condition. Post offices, 31. Telegraph stations, 43.

Cities. ()f more then 75.000 population: Nanning, Wuchow, and Kweilin (capital).

Treaty ports.—Wuchow, Nanning, and Lungchow.

Language of natives. - Mandarin in north, Cantonese in south.

American interests.—Under the jurisdiction of the Canton consulate general.

Province of Kwangtung. (Kwangdoong)

Area.—100,000 square miles.

Population.—28,000.000; 280 per square mile; densest in West River delta and along the coast.

Topography.—Mountainous, except in valleys of West River; mountains extend southwest to northeast; valleys and delta regions very fertile, giving three crops a year; well-indented coast line, with good harbors; tropical.

Agriculture.—Silk, rice, sugar, tobacco, cassia, fruits, vegetables, bamboo, tea, cotton, ginger, indigo, ramie, camphor, and hemp are the main products. Rice is the principal crop, in some places three crops being produced in a year. A very superior hemp is grown, and the same is true of ramie, the latter being manufactured into grass cloth. The silk is inferior to Kiangsu or Chekiang silk. The oranges, lichees, pomeloes, and ginger of Kwangtung are of very high quality and are far famed.

Minerals.—Iron and coal of good quality are known to abound. The mineral wealth of Kwangtung is still to be determined definitely, though it is believed to be extensive.

Industries.—The weaving of silk, grass cloth, and cotton, the manufacture of matting, paper, hosiery, porcelain, firecrackers, silverware, hardwood furniture, ivory materials, lacquer, jade ornaments, embroideries, medicines, and drugs, and the preserving of fruits, ginger, etc., are among the manifold industries of the Cantonese, noted for their progressiveness and industrious habits,

Communications.—Waterways: Steamer service with all coast ports; splendid launch service in the Delta region; water connections with adjacent Provinces, so that country roads are few, though stone paved and narrow and connecting market towns beyond reach of waterways. No wheeled vehicles used in Province, except railway ears. Railway: Canton-Samshui, Canton-Shiuchow, Canton-Kowloon (Hongkong), Kongmoon-Taishan, Swatow-Chaochowfu; under construction, Canton-Hankow. Post offices, 131. Telegraph stations, 70.

Cities.—Of more then 1,000,000 population; Canton (capital). most populous city in China. Between 100,000 and 500,000; Fatshan,

Chaochowfu, Hongkong, Sheklung, Shekki, Samshui, Sialam, and Kongmoon. More than 25,000: Swatow, Macao, Hokshan, and Shaping.

Treaty Ports.—Canton, Swatow, Kongmoon, Lappa, Pakhoi, Samshui, Hongkong (ceded to Great Britain), Macao (ceded to Portugal), and Kwangchow (leased to France.)

Language and characteristics of natives.—Cantonese and tribal dialects are spoken. There are aborigines in the west and Hakkas in the northeast. Ninety-five per cent of the Chinese who emigrated to America were Cantonese.)

American interests.—In northern half, under jurisdiction of Swatow consulate; in southern half, of Canton consulate general.

Province of Kweichow. (Kwayjoc)

Area.-67,000 square miles.

Population.—8,000,000; 120 per square mile; densest in south and southeast.

Topography.—Seven-tenths mountainous; a great table-land with mean altitude over 4,000 feet; valleys of Yuan and Wu Rivers deep and narrow.

Agriculture.—Tobacco, bamboo, wood oil, fruits, and wheat are the principal products, though the Province has the reputation of being the most unproductive in China.

Minerals.—Coal nitrate of potash, iron, zinc, nickel, silver, and quicksilver are said to abound. Kweichow is reputed to be wealthy in minerals, but unexplored.

Industries.—Mining seems to lend the greatest promise for the future in industry in this Province, claimed to be the richest in mineral wealth of all the Provinces in China.

Communications.—Waterways: Yuan and Wu both navigable. Four chief roads radiate from Kweiyang, connecting with Chungking, Tatingfu, Hunan, and Kwangsi. No railways. Post offices, 30. Telegraph stations, 14.

Cities.—Kweiyang (capital), 100,000; Anshunfu 50,000; Tsunyi, 40,000.

Treaty ports.—None.

Language and characteristics of natives.—Mandarin is spoken among the Chinese, and there are also tribal dialects. One-third of the people are Chinese and the remainder aborigines.

American interests — Under the jurisdiction of Canton consulate general.

Province of Shansi.

Arca.—82,000 square miles.

Population.—10,000 000; 122 per square mile; densest in fertile depressions.

Topography.—A great loess plateau fron 2,000 to 6,000 feet in elevation, with irregular mountain ranges running east and west; several large depressions, formerly lakes, form the fertile and populous sections of the Province; winters very cold, summers very hot.

Agriculture.—The loss soil is very fertile. Wheat, millet, sorghum, maize, cotton, tobacco, and fruits are the principal products.

Minerals.—Shansi is reputed to be the richest Province in China in coal deposits, producing now 4,000,000 tons a year—about one-fourth of China's production—but capable of supplying the world's demands for centuries. The Province is also rich in iron.

Industries. -Coal mining forms the principal industry. At one time, Shansi was noted for its cast-iron products.

Communications.—Waterways: The Fen River is navigable for flat-bottomed boats for 40 miles during a short season of the year. Cart roads traverse the fertile plains, but often far below the surface of the surrounding country, forming veritable canyons. Railways: Taiyuanfu, the capital, is connected with the Peking-Hankow Railway; the Peking-Kalgan line extends to Tatungfu. Post offices, 40. Telegraph stations, 18.

Cities.—Between 50,000 and 100.000; Taiyuanfu (capital) and Kweihwating, There are a dozen cities with populations of more than 20,000.

Treaty ports.—None.

Language of natives .- Mandarin.

American interests.—Under jurisdiction of Tientsin consulate general.

Province of Shantung. (Shantoong)

Area.—56,000 square miles.

Population.—30,000,000; 525 per square mile; most densely populated Province; densest in west.

Topography.—Mountainous in eastern and southern sections; western Shantung a great plain. Yellow River flows in northeasterly direction through Province, with frequent floods; soil rich; one good harbor (at Tsingtau).

Agriculture.—Wheat, cotton, maize, sorghum, millet, tobacco, hemp, peanuts, silk, fruits, walnuts, and vegetables are the principal products. It is a rich agricultural Province. Shantung produces the largest quantity of peanuts, mostly for export. A fine quality of tobacco from American seeds is grown.

Minerals.—Coal, iron, and gold are the principal minerals. A high quality of soapstone is also found. The coal and iron are being worked with modern methods and modern machinery and have developed into important industries.

Industries.—Strawbraid, from wheat straw and for straw hats; vermicelli, from beans, wheat, and sometimes sweet potatoes; pongee silk, from cocoons fed on oak leaves; bristles from pigs; egg albumen, and yolk; cattle; and peanut and bean oils—these are some of the products that contribute to Shantung's activities. With iron and coal mining, they constitute the industries of the Province.

Communications,—Waterways: Grand Canal, principal waterway of commerce; Yellow River navigable through Shantung by small native craft only. Railways: Tientsin-Pukow, Tsinan-Tsingtau, with branch to Poshan. Country roads used extensively throughout Province for carts, wheelbarrows, and pack animals. Post offices, 104. Telegraph stations, 81.

Cities.—Tsinan (capital), 250,000. More than 75,000: Chefoo. Tsining, Tsingtau, and Weihsien.

Treaty ports.—Chefoo, Tsingtau (leased to Germany and now occupied by Japan), Tsinan, Chowtsun, Lungkow, Weihsien, Weihaiwei (leased to Great Britain).

Language and characteristics of natives.—Northern Mandarin is spoken. The natives are hardy and peaceable.

American interests. —In Shantung promontory, under jurisdiction of Chefoo consulate; in central and southern Shantung, under Tsinan consulate; in Kiaochow, under Tsingtau consulate.

Province of Shensi. (Shunsee)

Arca.-75,200 square miles.

Population.—8,000,000; 105 per square mile; densest in Han and Wei River Valleys.

Topography.—High mountain ranges extend across northern and southern ends of Province; north of Wei River country is a great fertile, low tableland; Wei Basin is called "cradle of China;" Province was once noted for forests, but now hills are denuded of trees.

Agriculture.—The valleys of the Wei and Han Rivers are particularly productive. The Wei basin produces the finest quality of cotton grown in China. Wheat, corn, tobacco, Irish potatoes, alfalfa, beans, oats, barley, millet, peanuts, silk, persimmons, and rapeseed are also produced in Shensi, the staple crop being wheat.

Minerals.—Shensi's mineral wealth remains to be exploited. Its inaccessibility and lack of waterways and good roads have prevented development. Droughts and rebellions have also discouraged effort.

Industries.—Native flour mills operated by water wheels are numerous. Mules, cattle, and sheep are raised in large numbers.

Communications.—Waterways: The Han River is navigable as far up as Hanchungfu; the Province is poor in navigable waterways. Railways: None; a projected line crosses central China through the Wei Basin to central Asia. There is a good road crossing from Shansi over the Wei Basin into central Asia, over which the traffic, by carts and pack animals, is very heavy. A road also passes through this basin from Peking to Chengtu in Szechwan, following also the Han River Valley but crossing over mountain passes 8,000 feet high. Carrying coolies and pack animals by the

thousands may be seen on this great highway. Post offices, 37. Telegraph stations, 7.

Cities - Sianfu (capital), population 500,000.

Treaty ports.—None.

Language of natives .- Mandarin.

American interests.—Under jurisdiction of Hankow consulate general.

Province of Szechwan.

Area.—220,000 square miles.

Population.—45,000,000: 200 per square mile; Chengtu plain, 45 by 90 miles, has densest population, estimated at more than 2,000 per square mile.

Topography.—Three-fourths of Province is a high plateau with mountains extending to an altitude of 18,000 feet; this plateau, of red sandstone, slopes toward east and southeast; southern part of Szechwan semitropical; Chengtu plain remarkably productive.

Agriculture.—Szechwan claims to produce everything raised elsewhere in China. Silk, wheat, sugar, tobacco, fibers, rhubarb, bamboo, tea, herbs, and wood oil figure among the important products. The Chengtu plain is perfectly irrigated by an artificial system 2,000 years old and is probably the most fertile spot for its size in China.

Minerals.—No proper investigation (or at least none whose results have been made public or otherwise accessible) has been made of the supposedly great mineral wealth of Szechwan, including iron coal, copper, gold, quicksilver, and petroleum, all of which are reported as being present in quantity. The salt wells bored to a depth of 3,000 feet have disclosed the presence of petroleum and gas in considerable quantity.

Industries.—As Szechwan has but one outlet that can be advantageously used—the great Yangtze River—and even in this case navigation is fraught with danger because of the terrible rapids in the upper sections, the Province has always been self-supporting. There is much wealth there. Many of its products find their way out. The Szechwan salt wells are famous, some of them being 3,000 feet deep, bored by drills dropped down with bamboo ribbons, and requiring generations to reach this depth. It is a curious fact that the oil and gas, which comes with the brine from these wells, is treated as an evil to be gotten out of the way. The silk industry is probably the leading industry of Szechwan. Wood oil, vegetable tallow, a distinctive insect wax, musk, medicines, wood, hides, tobacco, and paper enter into the industries of the Province.

Communications.—Waterways: There is steam travel on the Yangtze as far as Suifu, and in the summer as far as Kiatingfu on the Min River. The three main branches of the Yangtze in Szechwan earry a heavy junk traffic. Navigation on the Yangtze beyond lehang is perilous by reason of the rapids, but within recent.

years regular steamers have been engaged in this traffic. Railways: None, though several are projected and a concession has been granted to an American concern. There are no cart roads. Many of the roads are paved with flagstones 4 feet wide. Travel is by foot, on horseback, or by chair. Goods are carried on backs of animals or men. Post offices, 127. Telegraph stations, 40.

Citics.—Chungking, 500,000; Chengtu (capital), 400,000. More than 100,000: Kiating, Fowchow, Wanhsien, Tzeliuching. Between 25,000 and 100,000: Chungpa, Batang, Mingyuanfu, Fengtuhsien, Kweichowfu, Suifu and Yachowfu.

Treaty port.—Chungking.

Language and characteristics of natives.—Western Mandarin and tribal dialects. Chinese and aboriginal tribes.

American interests.—Under the jurisdiction of the Chungking consulate.

Province of Yunnan (Yoo nan)

Area.—146,000 square miles.

Population.—9,000,000; 60 per square mile; densest on plains and eastern table-land.

Topography.—"The Switzerland of China;" high mountain ranges in west, tableland in south; climate healthful; good grazing lands.

Agriculture.—Wheat, cotton, silk, te2, rice, beans, tobacco, fruits, and vegetables are produced. The hams of Yunnan are famous throughout China, and pigs are well fed.

Minerals.—Yunnan is noted for mineral rather than agricultural wealth. Tin, antimony, coal, alum, arsenic, copper, gold, iron, mercury, silver, spelter, and tungsten are found in Yunnan, tin having occupied thus far the leading rôle. China's copper-coin requirements in the past have been met, it is stated, from Yunnan mines.

Industries.—Agriculture and mining have thus far given Yunnan such industries as it has.

Communications.—Waterways: The Ta and Red Rivers are both navigable by small boats for short distances. Railways: Haiphong-Hanoi-Yunnanfu. Roads: Only paths. Post offices, 42. Telegraph stations, 33.

Cities.—Yunnanfu (capital), Chaotung, and Tungchwan, each with less than 50,000.

Treaty ports.-Mengtsz, Szemao, Tengyueh.

Language and characteristics of natives.—Western Mandarin and tribal dialects. Fifty to sixty aboriginal tribes.

American interests.—Under the jurisdiction of the Canton consulate general.

Manchuria (Three Provinces: Fengtien, Kirin, Heilungkiang).

Area.—365,000 square miles.

Population. - 15.000,000; 40 per square mile; densest in Liao Plain.

Topography.—Three provinces, Fengtien, Kirin, and Heilung-kiang; northern region larger and better wooded, sloping toward Amur River; southern, more fertile, more thickly inhabited, sloping toward Gulf of Liaotung; Sungari plain in north and Liao plain in south have wonderful soil and splendid crops; large areas still uncultivated; on rich plateau lands, grass sometimes grows 6 feet high; climate is healthful, though winters are very severe.

Agriculture.—Manchuria contains some of the finest agricultural land in the world. It seems strange that this virgin country, so sparsely inhabited and so rich in possibilities, should have remained all these centuries in proximity to densely populated countries and not have been more effectively colonized ere this. The principal crop of Manchuria now is beans, an article whose value has only recently come to be appreciated by the outside world. Wheat ranks second in importance. Other cereals, such as millet, sorghum, and maize, are raised in large quantities. Silk, fed on oak leaves, is one of the products of Manchuria. Tobacco, beet sugar, indigo, vegetable oils, fruits, and live stock add to Manchuria's agricultural wealth.

Minerals—Practically the whole of South Manchuria is one vast coal field. Iron and gold are also found. Japanese capital is developing the coal and iron properties in a large way.

Industrics.—Bean oil, bean cake and bean products generally constitute a great industry in Manchuria. Raw silk, tobacco, furs and skins, lumber, and iron and coal are developing into profitable industries, employing in some cases enormous capital. The South Manchuria Railway, with its ramifications of industry is the biggest institution in Manchuria.

Communications.—Waterways: The Amur River is navigable for 450 miles for steamers and 1,500 miles for smaller craft; the Sungari is navigable to Kirin the Nonni to Tsitsihar, the Liao to Tungkiangtze, and the Yalu for its entire course. Railways: Mukden is connected on the south with Tientsin and Peking, on the north with Harbin and Tsitsihar, on the southeast with Port Arthur and Dairen, and on the east with Antung; through rail service from Peking to Yokohama, via Manchuria and Korea, is established, and also in peace times from Peking to Petrograd via Manchuria. Country roads are relatively good, and travel is by carts or on mules. Post offices, 203. Telegraph stations, 132.

Cities.—Mukden and Kirin, 100,000 each. Kwangchengtze (Changchun), Harbin, Aigun, Newchwang, and Dairen are other important cities.

Treaty ports.—Aigun, Antung, Dairen (Japanese leased territory). Manchouli, Newchwang, Sansing, Suifenho, Mukden, Fakumen, Fenghwangcheng. Hsinmintun, Tiehling, Tungkiangtze, Yingkow, Liaoyang, Changchun, Kirin, Ninguta, Chientao, Tsitsihar, Hailar.

Language of natives.—Northern Mandarin is most common.

American interests.—In north, under jurisdiction of Harbin consulate; in northeast, of Antung consulate; in Dairen and leased territory, of Dairen consulate; in South Manchuria, of Mukden consulate general.

Chinese Dependencies. (Mongolia.)

Area.—1,370,000 square miles.

Population.—2,500,000; 2 per square mile; densest in east and in river valleys.

Topography.—A vast basin-like plateau of 3,000 to 4,000 feet elevation, surrounded by mountain ranges and undulating steppes; near center is Gobi Desert, of more than 260,000 square miles; frequent sandsterms; atmosphere dry, winters extremely cold. For purposes of administration, country is divided into two sections—northern or outer Mongolia, and southern or inner Mongolia.

Agriculture.—The country is pastoral and the people nomadic. Cattle and sheep raising is carried on, with agriculture in certain favored regions. Awaiting development are wonderful stretches of virgin fertile lands, capable of producing enormous crops, and vast stretches of land wonderfully adapted to grazing.

Minerals.—Gold has been mined for years. The mineral wealth is subject to investigation, but is reputed to be enormous.

Industries.—Cattle and sheep raising, hides, wool (sheep's and camel's) licorice, and drugs seem to form the basis of the industries.

Communications.— Waterways: Canals and rivers are little used, as they are off the trade routes. Railways: None; one projected to connect Urga, the capital, with the Peking-Kalgan line. An American automobile service has been established between Kalgan and Urga, making the trip in four days. Roads are poor and not well marked. Main highway leads from Kalgan to Kiakhta via Urga. Caravan routes lead to Siberia with camel and bullock wagon trains.

Cities.—Urga (capital), 38,000, the only important city.

Treaty port.—Taonan.

Language and characteristics of nat ves.—Mongolian is spoken. The people are Turkish in the west, Chinese in the south, and Mongols in Mongolia proper.

American interests.—Under jurisdiction of Tientsin consulate general.

Sinkiang (Including New Province and Chinese Turkestan.)

Area.—550,000 square miles.

Population.—2,500,000; 4 per square mile; densest in eastern section.

Topography.—For the most part Chinese Turkestan is an immense desert, surrounded by mountains of great height and with fertile spots occurring only here and there.

Agriculture.—Where irrigation is possible, splendid crops are produced. The famous Oasis of Hami is exceptionally fertile, producing barley, oats, miliet, and wheat. Its melons are famous throughout China, for in former years many were sent to the Peking Court.

Min rals.—Chinese Turkestan produces a fine quality of jade. Its mineral resources are as yet unknown.

Industries. -Horses, camels, donkeys, and goats are raised. Carpets, jade, furs, skins, and silk fabrics are among the articles produced.

Communications.—Several ancient roads, of great historical

interest but in bad condition, are used as trade routes.

Cities: -Kashgar. 60,000: Yarkand, 50,000; Khotan, 30,000; Turfan, 20,000; Urumtsi, 30,000.

American interests.—Under the jurisdiction of Hankow consulate general.

Tibet

Arca.-465,000 square miles.

Population-6,000,000; 12 per square mile.

Topography.—The greater part of Tibet is desert, but valleys in the south and west are fertile and vegetation is luxuriant. The valley of the Chumbi River is reported to be the most fertile portion. The country as a whole has the greatest average elevation of any similar area in the world. On account of its marginal mountain ranges it is almost inaccessible.

Agriculture.—In the fertile valleys fruits and vegetables are grown, as well as corn and barley. Tibet furnishes excellent pasture lands. The domestic animals, the tame yaks, asses, goats, sheep, and horses, are sources of wealth to the natives.

Minerals.—Little is known of the mineral wealth, though all writers speak of gold abounding in free form. There is a superstition against mining, so that it is discouraged. Tibet is, however, looked upon as rich in minerals.

Industries.—Yak hides, lamb skins, musk, gold dust, wool, saddle rugs, carpets and medicines are some of the products that are exchanged for Chinese wares and products. The Tibetans generally lack enterprise, though they are spoken of highly in various other respects.

Communications.—Roads are few and bad. Rope bridges are used in crossing rivers and torrents. Sometimes the yak skin is used in making a species of light ferry boat. Government couriers have been known, traveling day and night, with relays of horses, to reach Peking from Lassa within a month.

Cities.- Towns are all small, generally with a maximum of a few hundred inhabitants. Lassa, the capital, has 40,000, more than half of whom are priests. This number is augmented considerably from time to time by pilgrims.



Hsu Shin-chang Present President of China



Treaty port.—Yatung, a small town with only a few score inhabitants.

Language and characteristics of natives.—The language of the natives is polysyllabic and highly developed. They are credited with being among the more highly endowed peoples of the world. They are fond of music and dancing and are complimented by travelers for their kindly bearing, cheerfulness, and frankness.

American interests.—Under the jurisdiction of the Chungking consulate.

HISTORICAL

For practical purposes we may regard the China of to-day as existing from the twenty-first century B. C., with the Chinese settled in the upper valley of the Yellow River, in occupation of the country now known as Kansu, Shensi, Shansi and Honan. The Chinese themselves have selected a date for this period earlier than 3,000 B. C., but on such a subject the critical faculty of native historians will not unnaturally be subordinated to dictates of patriotism. The names of the two Emperors Yao and Shun mark the transition from the legendary to the more or less historical period, and with their successor Yu we start the first Chinese dynasty, the Hsia dynasty (2205-1766 B. C.).

The two succeeding dynasties, the Shang and Chou, lasted respectively from 1766 B. C. to 1122 B. C., and from 1122 B. C. to 249 B. C. It was during the latter dynasty that China's three great philosophers flourished—Laotze (604 B. C.), Confucius (661-479 B. C.) and Mencius (372-289 B. C.). Already in the fourth century B. C. the feudal states, constantly at war with one another, had been gaining power at the expense of the central authority, and for sixty years before the last Chou Emperor abdicated the hegemony of the then Chinese Empire was virtually in the hands of Tsin, that gave its name to the next dynasty.

The Tsin dynasty was of short duration, 249-206 B. C., while it is probable that its authority was not finally recognised until 220 B. C. It produced only one Emperor of note, Tsin Shih Huangti (First Heavenly Emperor), whose name is famous for three exploits: the consolidation of the Empire by subdividing it into thirty-six provinces, the building of the Great Wall of China, and the burning of China's Classics.

The Han dynasty that came next is the best-known of these earlier lines of Emperors on account of its popularity with the Chinese, who style themselves to this day "Sons of Han." In its two branches, Western and Eastern Han (the removal of the capital from Sianfu in Shensi to Lohyang in Honan dates from A.D. 25) the dynasty maintained its hold on the Empire from 206 B.C. to A.D. 221. Its record is thus summed up by Père L. Richard:*

"Numerous public works were undertaken, prominent among which were bridges, aqueducts, roads and canals. The wealth and trade of the country developed. The Classics were restored and engraved on stone;

^{*}L. Richard's Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire. Franslated into English, revised and enlarged by M. Kennelly, S. J. 1998.

Buddhist literature was officially introduced from India, and intercourse opened with the Roman Empire. The competitive examinations for literary degrees (abolished September 2, 1905) originated under this dynasty, and a Penal Code was drawn up. Years of peace, during which the nation prospered, alternated with incursions by the Nomad Tartars. The modern Fukien, Kuantung Yunnan, Szechuan, and Liaotung were incorporated with the Chinese Empire. Chinese armies marched as far west as the Caspian Sea, and China occupied a foremost position among the nations of the East."

On the fall of the Han dynasty from internal dissensions the Empire was divided into three kingdoms, but in A.D. 205 these were consolidated under the Tsin dynasty. At this period the incursions of the Tartar tribes (Huns) from the north became more serious, until in A.D. 317 they established themselves permanently in North China and the dynasty removed the capital of the Empire to Nanking in Kiangsu. It now became known as the Eastern Tsin and retained the throne until A.D. 420.

For the next five centuries the history of the Chinese Empire is one of internal discord and rebellion, with constant struggles for possession or retention of the throne with, for the most part, short-lived dynasties. One only assumes any prominence, the Tang dynasty, which ruled over China from A.D. 620 to 907. Under this dynasty the western boundaries of the Empire extended and Korea became a province governed by Chinese officials. During the reign of the Emperor Taitsung (A.D. 267-650) the Nestorians and Mohammedans entered China, and the Nestorian Tables was erected at Sianfu by Imperial sanction (A.D. 781).

Five dynasties followed in fifty-three years and in A.D. 960 began the Sung dynasty with the capital at Kaifeng in Honan. The Northern Sung lasted until A.D. 1127, but early in its history the Kitan Tartars, who had long been challenging the Chinese Empire, proved formidable neighbors in the north.

In A.D. 1125 the Kin Tartars (N. E. Manchuria) defeated the Kitans and founded a kingdom, with its capital first at Liaoyang and then at Peking. Before these new invaders the Chinese retired south of the Yangtze, with Nanking as their capital, leaving the northern province and their Emperor in the hands of the Kins. The new Emperor invited the Mongols to fight his battles for him, and in A.D. 1234 the Kins were overthrown. The victorious Mongols then turned their attention to the Chinese, overran the country (A.D. 1275) and under the famous Kublai Khan established the Mongol dynasty of Yuen (A.D. 1280). During his reign Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller, who had previously entered China and remained there seventeen years, was received at the Peking Court.

In 1368 a successful revolution established once more a Chinese dynasty, the Ming (1368-1644), and the Mongols were driven from the country. During this period the boundaries of the Empire were extended to include Tongking on the south, but China was frequently hard pressed by the Mongols in the north and by the Japanese, who in 1554 captured several towns near the coast-line of Kiangsu, south of the Yangtze and of Chekiang. In 1618 the Manchus invaded Liaotung, and seven years later they made Mukden their capital. For more than twenty years their

attacks on the Empire were driven off. But in 1644 a successful rebellion in China led to the capture of Peking, and the last Ming Emperor committed suicide. The Chinese generals who were in command of the operations against the Manchus, summoned the latter to aid them against the insurgents. The Manchus entered Peking and the rebellion was crushed, but the victors established themselves in China, and the late Manchu dynasty, known as the Tsing (Taching) dynasty, ascended the Dragon throne in A.D. 1644. One of the earliest acts of the new reigning house was to compel the Chinese to shave their heads in recognition of Tartar authority. What was in origin a badge of service became an object of national pride.*

The Ming dynasty, after ruling nearly three hundred years, fell before the Manchus, a tribe of Tartars living near the present city of Mukden. One of the last Ming emperors neglected the administration of the country to meddle in the affairs of the border tribes and in doing this earned the resentment of the Manchus. Nurhachu the Manchu chieftain, led an attack against the Chinese and in 1618 invaded the Liaotung Peninsula. The invaders put to rout the Chinese who opposed them and on capturing a city compelled the Chinese to shave the front part of their heads and braid their hair into queues, as a sign of their subjection to the invaders. This was the origin of the queue which became such a distinguishing characteristic of the Chinese during the rule of the Manchu and has, since their overthrow, been disappearing.

The Chinese brought cannon from Macao with which to defend themselves against the invaders and succeeded in holding them in check. In the meantime two rebels, Li Tzu Cheng and Chang Hsien Chung, starting from Shansi and Shensi, met with great success and overran a large part of the Empire. The rebel Li, assumed the title of Emperor and advanced on Peking. Chuang Lieh, the last Ming Emperor, committed suicide when a treacherous eunuch opened the city gates for the rebels

General Wu Sen Kwei, who was holding back the invaders at the border, determined to avenge the death of the Emperor, and like the Sungs several hundred years before, entered into an agreement with the Manchus who were to aid him in driving out the rebels. The allies marched on Peking, routed the rebels, and General Wu pursued them to the South. Returning to Peking he found that the Manchu Regent had placed his nephew on the throne with the title of Emperor and inaugurated the Ts'ing dynasty. The Chinese in the South struggled for fifteen years against this usurpation of power but in the end were compelled to acquiesce in the Manchu rule. Exclusiveness and intolerance of any intercourse with foreigners distinguished the foreign relations of the country during almost the whole of the Manchu reign. In 1635 England had granted a charter to English merchants to trade in China and as a result Captain Weddell sailed for the East with a small fleet of vessels. Passing forts on his way to Canton, his fleet was fired on. He retaliated and silenced the forts. The Chinese authorities then granted the right to trade at Canton, subject to heavy restrictions.

The value and importance of Chinese trade became better known and in 1793 England sent Lord MacCartney to negotiate a treaty with

^{*}The foregoing historical matter is taken from the China Year Book, 1019. What follows is from Mr. Carl Crow's Handbook for China.

China providing for better relations between the two countries, but little was accomplished. About twenty years later Lord Amberst headed another embassy from England but was not received by the Lippeter. For more than forty years after the embassy of Lord MacCartney, Lingland continued her unsuccessful efforts to secure from China some satisfactory agreement providing for trade relations between the two countries.

During this period all English trade with China was in the hands of the East India Company, but the monoply came to an end in 1834. the Chinese side, all foreign trade had been in the hands of a monoply similar to that of the East India Company, the tamens Co hong of Canton. In fact all foreign commercial relations had been delegated to this guild of Canton merchants, with which the toreigners could deal and which had the authority to place many restrictions on toreign trade. Although England ended her monoply, the Chinese saw no reas n for similar action. The Co-hong was unwilling to relinquish its rights and the foreigners had no means of dealing directly with the government. At that time the toreign traders were limited to a small section of Canton, where they could They could sell their goods only to members of the Co-hong and make purchases from them alone. No one was allowed to teach them the language and they could not leave the confines of their residence area without a Chinese guard, nor were they allowed to go into the city of Canton. Strained relations between foreigners and Chinese resulted. The Manchu government at Peking all along took the attitude that commerce was beneath the dignity of the Son of Heaven and did not deign to notice it.

About 1856 the Chinese government did deign to notice foreign trade, for it became alarmed over the outflow of silver, a great part of this being due to the sale of opium smuggled in by foreigners often with the connivance of Chinese officials. In 1830 it was decided to make a determined effort to abolish the opium traffic, which had been introduced into China from India. A commissioner appointed to carry out the plans of the government arrived in Canton, seized the opium in the foreign warehouses, and 20,291 chests were destroyed.

Further demands were made on the toreign merchants and a year later war broke out between Great Britain and China. China was worsted on every side, but the conflict dragged on until the arrival of Sir Henry Pottinger in 1841. The war was then carried to the North, Sir Henry being instructed to make terms of peace with no authority less than that of the Imperial government. The fleet sailed up the coast, taking, in rapid succession, Amoy, Ningpo, Woosung and Shanghai, then proceeded up the Yangtsze and bombarded Chinkiang. By the time Nanking was reached, two imperial commissioners were there waiting to arrange for peace.

The treaty of Nanking was concluded on August 29, 1842. It provided that Canton, Shanghai, Amoy, Foochow, and Ningpo be opened as treaty ports where foreigners could reside and carry on their trade. The island of Hongkong was ceded to Great Britain and an indemnity of 21 million dollars was to be paid, 6 million of which was for the opium destroyed. Fair tariff rates were to be maintained at the treaty ports and communication between the two nations was to be on terms of equality. Similar treaties were then concluded with the United States

and with France. Under the provisions of this treaty, foreign firms were established at the five ports and the foreign residents of China greatly increased in number. A few missionaries had been sent to the country before this time, but with the opening up of the ports, more active work was possible.

In 1851 Emperor Hien Feng ascended the throne and about the same time the Taiping Rebellion broke out under the leadership of Hung Hsio-The teaching of a Protestant missionary in Canton was the indirect and innocent cause of this rebellion, for Hung, with half-formed ideas of Christianity, became a fanatic. For a time he organized a religious society near Canton, the object of which was to destroy idols. As the society grew in membership it became political and anti-dynastic. Hung announced himself as the "Heavenly King" and led his forces against government troops with the purpose of overthrowing the Manchus. The rebels marched northward to the Yangtsze Valley sacking cities and devastating the country through which they passed. There is scarcely a city of the Yangtsze valley which does not show today some evidences of their visits. They seized Hanvang, Wuchang, Hankow, Anking, Kiukiang and Nanking the latter city being selected as the Taiping capital. In 1853 an expedition was sent from there against Peking, but was repulsed at Tientsin. Li Hung-chang, who was then a young officer in Anhui, first came into prominence as a result of this rebellion. He employed two Americans, Ward and Burgevine, to command an army which had greater success against the rebels than attended the efforts of the regular Imperial forces.

While this rebellion was progressing northward, the friendly relations which had been established between Great Britain and China again became strained. The Chinese complained that opium was being smuggled into the mainland of China from Hongkong by means of vessels flying the British flag. The British asserted that they were still harassed by useless and malicious trade relations. The Chinese authorities seized and threw into jail the native crew of the "Arrow," a small vessel flying the British flag, and the negotiations which followed led to serious difference of opinion, both sides preparing for war.

The first contingent of British troops was sent out in 1857 under Lord Elgin, who had been appointed Lord High Commissioner for Great Britain, but the force of 5,000 men with which he started was diverted to India to put down the Sepoy mutiny. Meanwhile a French missionary had been murdered by the Chinese and the French government took this as a deciding reason for joining with the British.

The two forces sailed up the coast and easily took the Taku forts, when peace terms were discussed. It was agreed that Newchwang, Formosa, Swatow, and Kiungchow be opened as additional treaty ports and the British be given the privilege of trading on the Yangtsze river. An indemnity of 2 million taels was to be paid to each government and the tariff revised.

The following year had been set for ratification of the treaties, but the Chinese refused to agree to any place for exchange of ratifications. The two fleets proceeded to Tientsin and found the harbor blocked with piling and heavy chains, while they were fired on by the Taku forts. Another force of 20,000, was sent out and captured the forts. The Chinese sued for peace, but British emissaries sent to meet the officials coming from Peking were captured and thrown into prison. The forces advanced on the capital and a new treaty was signed October 22, 1860, the original indemnity being increased to 8 million taels. Kowloon, on the mainland near the Island of Hongkong, was ceded to Great Britain and Tientsin was opened as a treaty port.

While the Imperial forces were engaged with their foreign adversaries, the Taipings had taken advantage of the opportunity to extend their operations and resumed possession of a large section south of the Yangtsze river. When the rebellion started it was believed to be inspired by purely Christian motives and foreigners who had long since grown tired of the evasions and deceptions of the Manchu government readily gave their sympathy to the Taipings, while misinformed missionary societies in England and America held prayer meetings for the success of the rebellion. But the quasi-religious motives in which the rebellion originated soon disappeared and when missionaries called on the "Heavenly King" at Nanking they found him an arrogant fanatic living a dissolute life which gave the lie to his religious pretensions.

Foreign sympathy finally veered to the side of the Imperialists and foreigners took an active part in the fighting against the Taipings, General Ward was killed while leading an attack against the rebels and then Great Britain loaned to the Imperial government the services of Captain C. E. Gordon of the British army to take the place of General Ward. Captain Gordon reorganized the Imperial forces, placed them under foreign officers and continued the successes of his predecessor. He finally secured the surrender of the rebel stronghold of Soochow, making an agreement that the lives of the leaders should be spared. Li Hung-chang broke faith with the rebels and had the leaders beheaded, whereupon Captain Gordon refused to remain with the army.

However, his work was completed, for soon thereafter Nanking fell before the Imperial army, which had kept it in a state of siege for eleven years, and the rebellion ended in 1864. Some of the leaders committed suicide and the others who escaped execution quickly dispersed. The rebellion ceased to be and the rebels returned to their farms and shops as quickly as they had taken up arms. But the country had suffered devastation which is still attested to by the ruins of cities. Over 20 million lives had been lost and half the country plunged into extreme poverty.

Hien Feng, died in 1861, leaving as the heir to the throne his son, T'ung Chi, a child of five years. What proved more important in the future history of China was the fact that he was survived by Tsze Hsi, the little emperor's mother, who owing to the birth of the child, had been raised from the position of favorite concubine to that of Imperial consort. With the legitimate empress, who was childless, Tsze Hsi became joint regent. For fourteen years, the two empresses ruled, the mother of the emperor by virtue of her superior abilities slowly gaining the ascendancy. But in his nineteenth year the young emperor died, an event not unwelcome to the plotters around the throne who hoped thereby to be able to seize power for themselves.

In this conflict the Empress Dowager, Tsze Hsi, outwitted them all, and secured the selection of the infant son of her sister who had married a brother of Hien-Feng. This coup gave her renewed power and prolonged the regency in which she had, by this time, become dominant. The infant Emperor, Kwang Hsu, ascended the throne in 1875 while the Empress Dowager continued the dominating figure in all governmental affairs.

France, in 1864, had annexed Cochin-China, under the pretext that France was the protector of the Roman Catholic missions. Twenty years later France manifested desires for Tonkin, north of Annam, as a country which would enable it to tap Yunnan. Tonkin appealed to China for protection. Negotiations followed and China agreed to cede some territory to France.

Although the two countries were actually at war, following this occurrence, the fiction was kept up that each was engaging in reprisals. Under this fiction, the French fleet entered the bay at Foochow and after lying at anchor there for several weeks opened fire on the Chinese fleet, gaining an easy victory. Strongholds in Formosa and the Pescadores were taken easily. In the meantime the Chinese troops gained such success over the French on land that the latter were content to forget their early demands for a heavy indemnity, and the final terms of peace, concluded June 9, 1885, cast no discredit on China. She gave up her claims to Tonkin while France agreed to respect China's southern frontier. The conflict ended with a gain in prestige to China for she had been able to hold her own with a first-class power.

Another break with Japan came in 1894. Each country had agreed not to land troops in Korea without giving formal notice to the other but China ignored this agreement when serious disturbances broke out in Korea. Japan protested and China agreed to withdraw the forces but while this arrangement was being made a steamer arrived with more Chinese troops. A mutiny on board made it impossible for the Chinese commander to comply with the Japanese demands for a surrender. Japanese cruisers opened fire and sank the transport. War was declared at once.

The treaty of Shimonoseki was signed as a result of this war and China suffered heavily. The independence of Korea was recognized; Formosa and the Pescadores were ceded to Japan; an indemnity of 200 million taels was agreed to, Shasi, Chungking, Soochow, and Hangchow were to be opened as treaty ports. The war had conclusively proven the weakness of China and in the next few years she suffered many acts of foreign aggression.

During the drawing up of the Shimonoseki treaty, Russia interfered, apparently on behalf of China, to prevent the lease of Port Arthur to Japan. Shortly after the treaty was signed however, Russia forced China to lease this important fortress to her, thereby giving her one of the strongest naval bases in the world. The murder of two German missionaries was the pretext by which Germany seized Kiaochow, in Shantung. It is here that they have built up the important commercial center of Tsingtau. Great Britain leased Weihaiwei, in return for assistance

in paying the indemnity to Japan. France secured Kwangchowman, in Kwangtung, declaring this was necessary in order "to restore the balance of power in the Far East."

In 1898, Kwang Hsu, who had previously left all governmental affairs to his aunt, the Empress Dowager, came of age and took over affairs of government himself. To the surprise of everyone he entered on a series of reforms as ambitious as they were visionary. He gathered about him some of the most radical reformers in the country and for 100 days issued edict after edict which threw down established institutions and set up new ones. The Manchu nobles were to be sent abroad that travel might broaden their minds. Temples were to be replaced by schools in which Western learning was taught, and the publication of newspapers, which hitherto had been studiously suppressed, was to be encouraged and promoted.

The reactionary forces set in before any of these proposed reforms were effective. The Manchu nobles appealed to the old Empress Dowager to assert her rights as an "ancestor" and again take over the control of the government. In September 1898 the visionary period of reform came to an inglorious end. The Emperor was seized by a band of palace guards and for the rest of his life remained a virtual prisoner completely under the domination of his aunt. In a very short space of time all the reform edicts had been nullified and the government of China was again in the hands of the reactionaires, many of the reformers being executed.

A similar reaction took place in the provinces. The chagrin at the defeat of China by Japan had led to an increased interest in and demand for Western learning and many societies had been formed for the translation of Western books into Chinese. The change came with the acts of aggression by the foreign powers and the granting of the railway concessions. This anti-foreign feeling was most intense in Shantung, where it resulted in the organisation of the Boxers, a fanatical secret society having for its purpose the driving out of all foreigners from China and the complete elimination of foreign influence. The leaders declared themselves immune from harm by foreign bullets and gave each member a talisman which would insure similar protection for him. The movement rapidly grew in strength under the encouragement of officials.

In May and June, 1900 the long-threatened trouble broke out and not until then did foreigners appreciate the gravity of the situation. A number of Shantung villages occupied by Christian converts were destroyed, the converts massacred and several missionaries killed. The whole of North China was overrun by Boxers who robbed, looted, massacred and tore up railway tracks. In a short time they had reached the capital itself, and the city was thrown into a turmoil of excitement. A small mixed body of marines was hurriedly brought to Peking to guard the Legations. Foreign residents hastily gathered in the Legation compounds and a state of siege began in the early part of June. The Chancellor of the Japanese Legation and Baron von Ketteler, the German Minister, were murdered. From June 14, Peking was entirely cut off from communication with the rest of the world and little was known of the Legations until almost two months later.

A mixed force of about 2,000 men consisting of British, French, German, Russian, Austrian, American, Japanese and Italian troops left Tientsin early in June to repair the railway to Peking. It was set upon by large bands of Boxers and retreated with a great deal of difficulty, the loss of life being heavy. The foreign settlements in Tientsin were attacked and, fearing that an attempt would be made to cut off communication with the sea, the allied foreign admirals captured the Taku forts. Reinforcements of foreign troops arrived and Tientsin was cleared of Boxers, but with a loss to the allies of over 700 killed and wounded.

After the taking of the Taku forts, China rashly declared war on the rest of the world and there was no longer any doubt as to the issue. Regular Chinese soldiers joined the Boxer forces and all of the resources of the government were pitted against the allied troops.

Many additional forces were sent to Tientsin to join in the relief of the Legations, but international jealousies and misunderstandings contributed to inexcusable delays. On July 6, the Japanese government decided to embark two divisions which had been mobilized. British troops from India began to arrive in the early part of August and at the same time American troops from Manila. A relief column of 20,000 men set out for Peking on August 4, and after meeting with many difficulties and some loss of life arrived there on August 13 and on the following day entered the city and raised the siege. The Boxers during all this time had kept the Legations constantly under fire and there had been heavy loss of life. The band of marines, bluejackets, soldiers and civilians who made up the guard for the Legations had never numbered more than 500 and at the time the siege was raised, 90 had been killed and 131 wounded. When the foreign troops entered, the Empress Dowager and the Emperor fled from Peking to Sianfu.

Peking had suffered terribly from the Boxer activities. In their efforts to destroy all foreign property, fires had been set which spread over a large part of the city, destroying the business section. Foreign and Chinese houses alike had been looted, and a great part of the city was in ruins. The arrival of the allied forces added to the devastation, for the soldiers looted uninterruptedly for several days. Order was finally restored, and then began a long series of negotiations, hampered, as the relief had been, by the jealousies of the foreigners.

Each nation had a long list of indemnities demanded for property and lives lost and as a punishment to China. At length it was decided that China should pay an indemnity of £67,500,000 in annual instalments reaching over a period of 40 years. The Taku forts were to be demolished so as to give access from the sea to the Legations in case of another attack and permanent garrisons were to be established by the foreign powers both at the Legations in Peking and on the way to the sea. In addition a number of the leaders of the Boxer movement were executed, others allowed to commit suicide, and apologies conveyed to Germany for the murder of her Minister.

There were a few further outbreaks of Boxer activities in 1901 and 1902, but the Boxers no longer had the sympathy of the government, and most effective measures were taken to suppress any activity against foreigners.

Russia's need for an ice-free port led to her designs to secure complete control of Manchuria. Her demands made shortly after the Boxer trouble amounted virtually to annexation and Viceroy Yuan Shih-kai urged on China the necessity of warlike preparations. But in the meantime Japan, having her own plans regarding the development of Manchuria, grew tired of the vacillating policy of China and took action herself, dealing directly with St. Petersburg. The result of these negotiations was war, in which Japan succeeded, and took over from Russia the special privileges which had been granted to that country in the Southern part of Manchuria, including the lease of Port Arthur.

Through all the turmoil of the war with Japan, the Boxer trouble, and other events of the history of China, the reform movement which in some places showed anti-dynastic tendencies became more powerful and the throne itself began preparations for the adoption of a form of constitutional monarchy. Edicts were issued in 1906 promising the great change at some indefinite date. A few years later a more convocation of a parliament in 1907. The reformers were jubilant for they believed a genuine desire for change was felt in Peking.

Two months after issuing this decree. Emperor Kwang Hsu died, the death of the Dowager Empress occurring the next day. One of her last acts was to secure to the accession of the throne Pu Yi, the infant son of Kwang Hsu's brother, Prince Chung. Immediately on his accession to the throne in the latter part of 1908, Prince Chung became Regent and inaugurated a change in policy. He dismissed Yuan Shih-k'ai, and other leaders of the conservative reform movement and nothing more was done on the program of reform.

In the few years following, revolutionary activities, secretly promoted by many leaders, grew so rapidly that in the early part of 1911 the leaders were unable longer to hold it in check. The plans of the national government to borrow money from foreign banks and nationalize all the railways of China led to serious riots in Szechuan, where the people objected to the government taking over a property they had promoted. There were other local complications which tended to accentuate the grievances of the the people and Szechuan was in a state of open rebellion in September.

In October, the activities of the revolutionaries in the three cities of Hankow, Wuchang, and Hanyang had become so noticeable that Viceroy Jui Cheng took active measures to suppress them. He had thrown a number of them in jail and beheaded others when the accidental explosion of a bomb in the Russian concession of Hankow revealed the location of the revolutionary headquarters. The Viceroy was informed of the discovery and at once a thorough search of Wuchang began, several suspected rebels being beheaded. The vigorous measures taken by the Viceroy to suppress the movement compelled the revolutionists to take action at once. A small number of soldiers mutinied, were joined by others and within twenty-four hours the Viceroy and other officials had been compelled to flee while the rebels under the leadership of Li Yuanhung took complete possession of the three cities.

Imperial troops from the North were sent against the rebels, but the anti-dynastic movement spread over all the country with startling rapidity. The loyal troops were able to make some headway against the rebels at

Hankow, but the Republican army grew rapidly, and city after city in the South drove out the Manchu officials, declaring allegiance to the provisional Republican government. At a few places the bitter race feeling caused bloody massacres of the Manchus, neither women nor children escaping.

Within a month after the outbreak of the fighting in Hankow, fourteen of the eighteen provinces of China had thrown off Manchu authority and sent representatives to the provisional Republican government. The Manchus made frantic efforts to stem the rising tide of Republicanism and regain the affections of the people, which had been forfeited by so many years of misrule. Yuan Shih-k'ai, who had been so humiliatingly dismissed by the Prince Regent, was recalled to the service of the throne and rapidly advanced in power. Imperial Edicts were issued containing abject apologies for the poor government and injustices of the past and promising even more than the reformers had demanded in the way of improvements for the future.

Dr. Sun Yat-sen arrived in China during the latter part of December and was at once elected president of the provisional Republican government, the capital being established in Nanking. In the meantime two commissioners had been appointed to decide on the future form of Government, Dr. Wu Ting-fang representing the Republicans and Tang Shao-yi the Imperialists. These negotiations ended on February 10, 1912, when an Imperial Edict announced the abdication of the infant Emperor and appointed Yuan Shih-k'ai to carry out the formation of the Republican form of government. The edict made provision for an annual allowance for the support of the Imperial Clan.

Shortly after the publication of this edict, the Republican Assembly in session at Nanking accepted the resignation of Sun Yat-sen and elected Yuan Shih-kai as president. The coalition Republican government was then established in Peking.*

Government

The Government of China is republican, the executive power being entrusted to the President and Cabinet; the legislative, to Parliament. Because of the general difficulties in transforming an absolute monarchy into a modern democracy, the government has not yet had ample opportunities to develop all of its departments along modern methods. But the basis for Constitutionalism exists. The President is elected by Parliament, which consists of a lower house and a senate. The members of the lower house serve for three years; while the Senators are elected for six, one third retiring every two years.

The Cabinet, which is appointed by the President and ratified by Parliament, consists of the following Ministers:

^{*}Handbook for China by Carl Crow. Pages 37 to 50.

Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Minister of Interior.

Minister of Finance.

Minister of War.

Minister of Navy.

Minister of Justice.
Minister of Education.

Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

Minister of Communications.

In addition to the Cabinet, the General Staff and the Frontier Defense Bureau have authority over the military. The Frontier Defense Bureau was originally the War Participation Board and was created upon China's entrance into the World War. (this Bureau has been abolished during the recent fighting around Peking and its activities and troops have been placed under the direct centrol of the Ministry of War).

The following bureaux have considerable authority in the administration of the government of China:

The Department for Mongolia and Thibet.

Board of Audit.

Revenue Council.

Commission for the Codification of Laws.

Department of Telegraphs.

Department of Railroads.

Committee for the Unification of Railway Accounts and Statistics.

Each province is a unit unto itself and the government of the province is delegated to a Military Governor (Tuchun), a Civil Governor (Shenchang) and a Provincial Assembly. The Military and Civil Governors are appointed by the President. The Provincial Assemblies are elected by the provincial merchants, and gentry. The Provincial Assemblies are constantly gaining in authority and are becoming the representative organ for popular expression.



SUN YAT-SEN First President of China



PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS

The Chinese.—"With regard to physical characteristics, the inhabitants of the eighteen provinces differ widely from one another, and the same may be said sometimes even of the inhabitants of the same province. There are, however, certain features which are common to The stature is below the average, and seldom exceeds 5 feet 4 inches, except in the north. The head is normally brachycephalic or round horizontally, and the forehead low and narrow. The face is round, the mouth large, and the chin small and receding. The cheek-bones are prominent, the eyes almond-shaped, oblique upwards and outwards, and the hair coarse, and invariably, black. The beard appears late in life and remains generally scanty. The eyebrows are straight and the iris of the eye is black. The nose is generally short, broad, and flat. The hands and feet are disproportionately small, and the body early inclines to obesity. The complexion varies from an almost pale vellow to a dark brown, without any red or ruddy tinge. Yellow, however, predominates, as with the Japanese Manchu, and Mongolian races." (L. Richard's Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire).

Manchus.—The Manchus are descended from a Tartar tribe, belonging to the Tungus. They resemble the Northern Chinese in being of a slightly larger build and sturdier than the inhabitants of Central China, but their eyes lack the upward turn. The feet of the Manchu women are not bound, while their hair, in distinction to that of the Chinese, is worn twisted round a silver bangle placed crosswise on the top of the head.

Mongolians.—The Mongols are a sturdy, thick-set race, generally more powerfully built than the Chinese, vigorous and capable of enduring great physical hardships. They are born horsemen, but on foot they are both awkward and incapable of much sustained effort. In their personal habits they are excessively dirty, while they combine extraordinary gluttony with supreme laziness and general improvidence. The intellectual standard of the people is low, a fact attributed by most observers to the hold that Lamaism has on the country.

Tibetans.—The Tibetans belong to the Mongol family, resembling the Western Mongolians more than the Eastern, the nose and cheek bones being prominent, the ears large, the forehead narrow. Their complexion is light brown with a tendency to ruddiness. The Tibetans of Lhasa are shorter than the Chinese. In other parts of the country the stature of the inhabitants is above the Chinese average.

Languages and Dialects.

The language of the Republic is Chinese, but it is sub-divided into so many dialects with widely differing pronunciations, often only intelligible locally, that the country can hardly be said to be possessed of a common tongue. As in other countries there is a marked distinction between the written and the spoken language. The former is divided into three varieties:

^{*}China Year Book, 1919-b. 34.

- 1.—The Arcient style of the Classics and early Annals of the Empire, which is a subject for the interpretation of scholars.
- 2.—The Literary style (Wenli), used in books and in the essays written at public examinations of the old regime.
- 3.—The Official style of public documents and business correspondence, of which the characters are the same throughout the Empire.

The one language that can claim to be in any way common to the Republic is known as Mandarin, which in its three varieties, Northern, Southern, (Nanking) and Western, is spoken by two-thirds of the population of China.

The dialects that most resemble Mandarin are the Cantonese, with the Allied Hakka, the Ningpo, Shanghai, Wenchow, Amoy, Swatow and Foochow dialects. These dialects, however, would not be understood by an ordinary Mandarin speaking Chinese belonging to another province. Interpreters are by no means unknown in official Chinese conclaves in Peking.

The various tribes to which reference has already been made have their own dialects and a different script. *

CURRENCY AND FOREIGN EXCHANGE

There are three principal kinds of currency in China—the cash, the dollar, and the tael. The cash is a small bronze coin pierced in the center for stringing, which is familiar in this country as a curiosity. Though it is being superseded to a considerable extent by the fractional dollar currency, it is still the commonest coin, especially outside of the large ports, for small retail transactions in which the Chinese alone are concerned. It is almost never used by foreigners and does not enter into foreign trade. It is customary to reckon the cash as roughly equal to one-tenth of a Chinese cent, but its actual value is constantly fluctuating. It is independent of any gold or silver standard.

The dollar currency is the official circulating medium of China. The basic unit is a silver dollar, sometimes called the "Yuan Shi-kai dollar "adapted from the Mexican dollar and containing 0.779976 of an ounce of fine silver. According to the quarterly statement of the Director of the United States Mint with regard to the value of foreign coins, the Chinese dollar is equal approximately to 0.644 of a haikwan tael; therefore it is equivalent to 0.7174 of a Shanghai tael, at the official ratio between the two taels.

The new dollar circulates freely and is becoming more and more the standard coin of the country, though it is still discounted in certain localities, especially in the south. It is indicated by the same sign (\$) as the United States dollar, and sums in United States

[&]quot; China Year Book 1919. Page 38.

currency are distinguished locally by the letter "G" (gold). The official Hongkong dollar is common in South China, and several other local dollars are in circulation.

The word "dollars" is frequently applied in China to other currency units originally based on the Mexican dollar—even to the Indo-China piaster and the Phillipine peso. In the districts under Japanese control the Chinese dollar or its equivalent is sometimes called a "silver yen" (SY). Prices in silver dollars of any kind are usually quoted as "Mex." Wherever the term "8 Mex." is used in the present report, the Chinese silver, or "Yuan," dollar is meant.

Fractional Currency

The national currency includes silver 20 and 10 cent pieces and bronze cents, which fluctuate independently of the dollar of which they are nominally fractions. This fractional currency is locally known as "small money," to distinguish it from the integral dollar currency which is called "big money." As far as foreigners are concerned the "small money" appears only in minor retail transaction; but it is necessary to understand the distinction because it usually exchanges with "big money" at a discount of 10 to 20 per cent of its face value. In the annual statement of a company operating a street railway in one of the treaty ports, a deduction of 20 per cent was made from gross earnings on account of the depreciation of "small coins."

The Chinese Government issues no paper currency, but the Government-controlled Banks of China and Bank of Communications issue notes which are not at present freely redeemed in specie and circulate only at heavy discounts. The foreign-exchange banks issue in dollar currency notes that circulate at par in the locality where issued and at a small discount (usually about 2 per cent) in other parts of China.

The dollar currency is beyond doubt the coming standard of China, though the tael will continue to rule for a long time in commercial transactions. The dollar is now the medium for all cash payments in which foreigners are concerned, for most small personal bank accounts, and to an increasing degree for general retail business. It is little used in wholesale business and very rarely in foreign trade.

Tael

The tael is not a coin but a weight of silver of a given fineness. The weight of the haikwan, or Maritime Customs, tael is the same as the standard tael weight (1 ounce) and its relation, fixed by treaty, to the other important taels, is as follows: 100 haikwan taels-101.642395 kuping, or Treasury, taels, 105.215 Tientsin taels, and 111.4 Shanghai taels. The ratio of the haikwan to certain other commercial taels is fixed from time to time by the customs authorities. The haikwan and kuping taels are the only important ones distinguished by their use: for the other taels the distinction is mainly geographical, every important commercial center having its own tael.

As there are no coined taels, payments in this medium are supposed to be made in silver bullion, or "syeec." This is usually in the form of ingots of a peculiar shape known as "shoes." which weigh about 50 taels each. Between foreigners and Chinese firms, however, tael transactions are settled either by negotiable paper or by conversion into dollars. While this inconvenience is driving the tael out of use in eash and retail transactions, it is maintained as the standard currency of the country by the conservatism of the people, the influence of the great exchange banks, and uncertainty as to the purity of much of the silver in circulation.

The tael is not used in Hongkong and is less dominant in the trade of South China than in that of the center and north. The Government of Hongkong moreover, restricts the circulation of dollar currencies other than its own.

The Chinese purchaser buys abroad for gold and sells his imported goods for silver. The gold values to-day are equivalent to a certain number of taels, while to-morrow they may be quite different. With this constant fluctuation in the number of taels that will be required to pay for a given amount of goods, the buyer is always on the alert to place orders when exchange is most in his favor. This is when the price of silver is high and imports are slack.

When silver is high, the buyer can get more gold dollars for his silver money, and when there is no rush of imports there is no competition in exchanging silver for gold and no tendency to raise the price of gold through the run on the market. On the other hand, the exporter finds it best to sell when the opposite conditions prevail. Trade is therefore sympathetic to some extent with the variations in the exchange between silver and gold, which is fixed almost from hour to hour by the banks. A complicating feature is the fact that the local currencies fluctuate independently of international exchange, and local fluctuations may make it difficult to sell goods at a particular time in a given district.

For several years gold has been "cheap" in China, owing to the enormous purchases of silver by the warring nations and to the drop in the world's production during recent years, caused by the disturbances in Mexico. So far as exchange only is concerned, the last few years have been favorable to the purchase of goods abroad; but purchases have been somewhat limited by other factors, such as extremely high prices, delayed deliveries, and uncertainty as to the continuance of the high exchange.

The trade of China, under the complex war conditions, has been generally prosperous; but in the long run it has been found that a low exchange rate is more favorable to an active foreign trade because the Chinese obtain the money to purchase foreign goods from the sale of Chinese products for export. Normally, therefore, a high exchange rate limits exports and thereby indirectly limits imports.*

^{*} From Far Eastern Markets for Railway Materials, Equipment and Supplies.

Weights.

A Weights and Measures Law was promulgated at the end of 1014, establishing a double system, one being the standard metric unit, the other based on the ying tsao ch'ih (builder's foot) for length and the Kuping tael (or liang) for weight. The law contained provisions for the inspection of weights and measures, imposed fines for the use of interested or fraudulent measures, and sanctioned the establishment of a special plant for the manufacture of instruments of weight and measure in order to secure absolute uniformity.

The following are the units of length, area, capacity, and weight: Length: Ch'ih — 32 metre — 1.049867 feet.

Area: Mow (6,000 sq. ch'ih) - .06144 Hectare - .15182 acre.

Capacity: Sheng - 10.354688 litres - 10.9416 liquid quarts or 2.7354

Weight: Liang-37.301 grammes-1.31561 avoirdupois ounces.

The term 'li' is used to express $\frac{1}{1000}$ ch'ih (and 1800 ch'ih),

 $\frac{1}{100}$ mow, and $\frac{1}{1000}$ liang.

The following tables are used:-

I Fen (Candareen). 10 Li 10 Fen — I Ch'ien (Mace)
10 Ch'ien — I Liang (Tael)
16 Liang — I Chin (Kin) or Catty
10 Chin — I Tan or Picul 100 Chin

For purposes of foreign trade these weights are fixed as follows:-

 $583.3 \text{ grs.} - 1\frac{1}{3} \text{ oz av.} - 37.783 \text{ grammes.}$ I Liang -I Catty —
I Picul — $1\frac{1}{3}$ lb. or 604.53 grammes.

133\frac{1}{3} lb. or 60.453 kilogrammes.

In native trade the catty ranges from 12 to 42.5 ounces, and the number of catties to the picul will vary from 90 to 280.

Length.

 10 Fen
 —
 I Ts'un (inch)

 10 Ts'un
 —
 I Ch'ih (foot)

 10 Ch'ih
 —
 I Chang (Pu or Kung)

 180 Chang
 —
 I Li.

For purposes of the foreign Customs trade the length of the Ch'ih is fixed as follows:-

I Ch'ih - 14.1 inches or 0.358 metres.

A Li, theoretically 2115 feet or two fifths of a mile, is usually taken as a third of a mile, as being nearer the theoretical distance that the word li conveys to the Chinese mind.

In actual practice a Chinese foot (ch'ih) varies from 8.6 to 27.8 inches. The Chinese Commercial Guide gives 100 different values of the ch'ih as actually in use. Some of the "standard" lengths in various trades, etc. are as follows:—

Carpenter'sch'ih — II.I	4
Mason's , — 11.0	0 (10.9).
Artisan's, — 12.5	69
Poard of Revenue's 13.1	81
Tailor's -13.8	5 - 14.05.
Customs House , — 14.0	98.
Junk Builder's	60 - 15.60

Area

10 Ssu — 1 Hao 10 Hao — 1 Li 10 Li — 1 Fen 10 Fen — 1 Mow 100 Mow — 1 Ch'ing.

25 Square Ch'ih — 1 Pu or Kung. 240 Pu — 1 Mow. — 1 Ch'ing.

The Mow is regarded at Shanghai by custom as equivalent to one-sixth of an English acre (7260 sq. ft.), but it varies throughout China from 3840 square feet to 9964 square feet, with one standard of 18,148 square feet.

Capacity

10 Ko — 1 Sheng 10 Sheng — 1 Tow 10 Tow — 1 Shih.

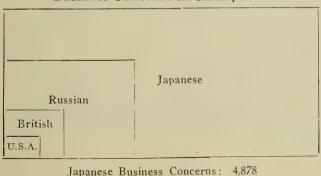
"Measures of capacity are seldom used except for rice and grain, and these are ordinarily sold wholesale by weight; fluids, such as oil, spirits, molasses, etc., are almost invariably sold by weight. Grain tribute is assessed on the tax note by measures of capacity, but is generally collected by weight at a rate of conversion fixed by the collectors, when it is not collected in money at rates also fixed by the collectors. The Tow for tribute contains 629 cubic inches (10.31 litres) but in different parts of the Empire different standards of tow exist, ranging from 176 all the way to 1800 cubic inches" (Morse 3).*

^{*}China Year Book, 1919, Page 80-87.

Distribution of Population in Different ** Provinces of Chinese Republic

Area in Square Miles 54,826 36,680	Estimated Population 37,000,000	Population per Square Mile
	37,000,000	
36,680		695
	22,690,000	618
115,830	29,400,000	115-
46,332	20,000,000	431
67,954	25,600,000	376
83,398	22,040,000	264
71,428	24,770,000	346
125,483	5,000,000	40
69,498	24,534,000	353
38,610	26,920,000	699
77,220	8,000,000	103
100,000	32,000,000	320
67,182	11,300,000	, 168
81,853	10,000,000	122
55,984	38,000,000	679
75,290	8,800,000	116
218,533	72,190,000	330
146,714	7,571,000	51
363,700	19,290,000	51
1,367,953	2,580,000	2
550,579	1,200,000	2
463,320	6,500,000	14
4,278,377	455,385,000	
	81.853 55,984 75,290 218.533 146,714 363,700 1,367,953 550,579 463,320	81.853 10,000,000 55,984 38,000,000 75,290 8,800,000 218.533 72,190,000 146,714 7,571,000 363,700 19,290,000 1,367,953 2,580,000 550,579 1,200,000 463,320 6,500,000

Chart Showing the Number of American, British, Japanese Business Concerns in China, 1919



^{*} The figures here given are from the Annual Report of the Chinese Maritime Customs, 1919 and Chinese Census of 1910. They differ from figures for each Province previously given here from Mr. Julean Arnold's Handbook of China. All Chinese population estimates are approximate.

Russian British

American

1,760

644 314

‡ Foreign Population in China, 1919

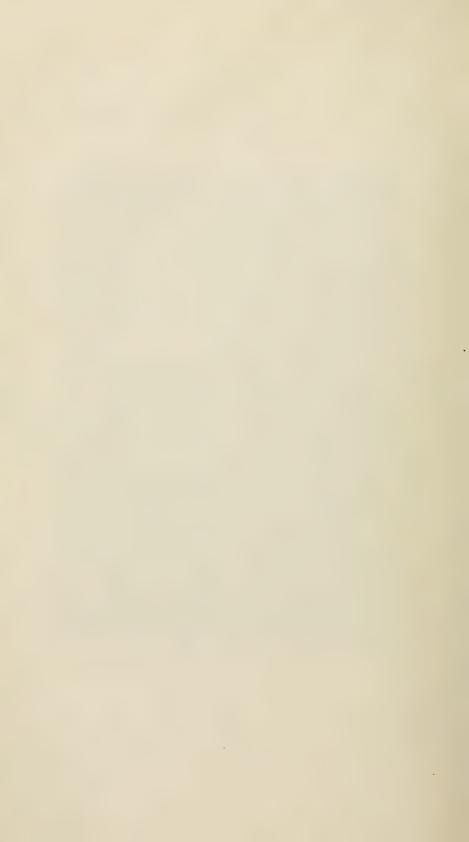
NATIONALITY	FIRMS	PERSONS
American	314	6,660
Austrian	5	27
Belgian	20	391
British	644	13,234
Danish	27	546
Dutch	. 25	367
French	171	4,409*
German	2	1,335
Hungarian	••	11
Italian	19	276
Japanese	4,878	171,485
Mexican		1
Norwegian	12	249
Portuguese	93	2,390
Russian	1,760	148,170
Spanish	8	272
Swedish	4	632
Non-Treaty Powers	33	536
Total	8,015	350,991

^{*} Including 918 protégés.

^{*} Customs Report



YUAN SHIH-KAI Second President of China



Chinese Abroad

The following official estimate of Chinese living abroad has been compiled. The figures are probably too high (e.g. Japanese returns give the number of Chinese in Japan as 11,840, compared with the 17,700 of this table):

Formosa · · · · · · · · · ·	2,258,650	D	
_	, , , ,	Peru ·····	45,000
Java ·····	1,825,700	Siberia	37,000
Siam ·····	1,500,000	Australia · · · · · · · · · · · ·	35,000
East Indies · · · · · · ·	1,023,500	Honolulu	27,000
Singapore · · · · · · · ·	1,500,000	Brazil	20,000
Hongkong ·····	314,390	Japan · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	17,700
Annam	197,300	Canada	12,000
U.S.A	150,000	Korea · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	11,300
Burmah	134,600	South Africa	5,000
Cuba ·····	90,000	Mexico · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	3,000
Philippines · · · · · · · ·	84,060	Europe	1.760
Macao ·····	74,560	•	

GENERAL TRANSPORTATION CONDITIONS.*

Primitive Means of Travel.

It is probably true that the ordinary means of transportation in vogue to-day in China represent in general more primitive methods than those of any other country, not excepting India. The traveler on land can be conveyed by horse, sedan chair, cart, wheelbarrow, mule, litter, camel, jinrikisha (drawn by coolies), or he can walk.

Commodities are carried by wheelbarrows, carts, pack horses, mules, donkeys, oxen, camels, and, to a very surprising extent by vehicles drawn or carried by human beings. One of the early objections to railways was that they would produce unemployment among the multitude of people employed in transportation pursuits, but even these classes seem now to appreciate that the railways increase the opportunity for this kind of labor—and at rather better wages than formerly prevailed. Persons interested in primitive transportation can certainly find a most interesting field of study from one end of China to the other.

A Chinese horse or mule—somewhat undersized—carries from 250 to 325 pounds, depending somewhat on the bulk. Camels carry probably 50 per cent more, but are used only in the north. Wheelbarrows carry from 250 to 400 pounds, but seldom make more than 16 miles a day and frequently less. Carts carry varying loads, depending on the number of coolies, mules, donkeys, or Chinese horses drawing them. The combinations of donkeys, coolies, mules, etc., that are seen from place to place drawing vehicles are never ending. At Kalgan the writer photographed, very much to the displeasure of the Mongol driver, a camel hitched to a cart—an unusual combination even for this part of China, which is most interesting from a transportation standpoint.

^{*}Far Eastern Markets For Railway Materials, Equipment, and Supplies. Page. 30-32.

Character of Chinese Highways.

China's reputation for bad roads and streets is quite deserved. In the south, where wheelbarrows are most used, the paths are uniformly bad. In the central and northern parts of the Republic, some even of the most important highways are bad almost beyond description. but in other places roads were seen that were quite passable. In the past, many of these highways were substantially built and probably well maintained, as is evidenced by the really good bridges. noted especially the bridge at Kalgan, over the Yang River, a branch This bridge is undoubtedly very old but is in good of the Han River. condition. The mortar appears to be pure lime, with no sand or other materials as a filler. This bridge forms part of what has been for many centuries one of the most important caravan routes of the world. The traffic from Kalgan to Peking is now practically all carried by the Peking-Suiyuan Railway. The two principal caravan routes from Kalgan are, one to the northwest to Urga and one to the west to Suiyuan. The latter will be replaced by the Peking-Suiyuan Railway, upon the completion of the line from Fengchen to Suiyuan, which is now under construction.* There is no wheeled traffic over this old caravan road, everything being carried by pack animals.

In some of the cities of North China, the writer saw considerable work in progress in the streets. This was particularly the case in Peking, where some very substantial work was being carried out. A movement for the building of better roads appears to be getting under way, and one of the stimulating influences is the great delight manifested by the Chinese in running any kind of an automobile that they are able to acquire. There is a good deal of modern road-making machinery in China, particularly one make of British steam road roller, and there is likely to be a very considerable demand for highway building materials and machinery in the course of the next few years.

The Great Wall.

In connection with the above caravan road passing through Nankow Pass, it seems proper at this point to mention the Great Wall of China. The Peking-Suiyuan Railway follows the same gorge as the caravan road, and passes under the ridge of the West Hills only a few hundred feet from the gate where the caravan road passes through the wall. The wall in this vicinity is very substantially built, and although it is doubtless many years since repairs have been made, much of it is still in surprisingly good condition. All the mortar seems to have been pure lime, with no sand or other filler.

Coastal Carriers.

With such a large population living along the seacoasts and navigable rivers, there has naturally grown up a very extensive coastal shipping business. A number of these companies have been very

^{*} This line has been completed.

profitable. The principal ones are under the British, Japanese. Chinese and French flags—this order representing their relative pre-war importance.

The carrying of Chinese products, as well as foreign goods, between treaty ports on the Chinese coast by ships under the flags of foreign nations is the only coastwise traffic that is carried in foreign bottoms. In other countries this business is usually reserved exclusively for the ships of the country. In many instances the foreign control of Chinese shipping facilities has a very great influence in causing the business to go to the countries controlling the shipping.

River and Canal Carriers.

The many navigable rivers, particularly the Yangtze, and the great number of canals (many of them small streams canalized) have, throughout historic times, borne a large volume of traffic. The Chinese junk, which is much the same to-day as it was centuries ago, seems capable of navigating all kinds of watercourses, from the high seas to canals through highly cultivated areas where the junks sometimes present the appearance of moving through grain fields on wheels. A number of the same strong companies that carry on the coastal shipping also have fleets on the navigable rivers, particularly the Yangtze, and here again one finds the very unusual arrangement of foreign bottoms carrying native products as well as foreign goods on this inland waterway. In all other important countries aliens are excluded from such business. That these coastal and inland watercarriers are real competitors for business is shown by the low freight rates that the Shanghai-Nanking Railway has to grant to attract business between Shanghai and Chinkiang and Nanking.

Without question, it would be to the great advantage of China as a whole, and in the end to the interest of most of the holders of the treaty loans, if all future construction of transportation facilities were carried out as part of a comprehensive scheme for the entire country; and in the planning of such a complete system careful consideration should be given to the fullest possible utilization of these waterways. Particular attention should be given to this matter in connection with the proposed construction of competing railways that are not likely to pay.*

^{*}Far Eastern markets for Railway Materials, Equipment, and Supplies Page 33.

Railroads*

The total railway mileage of all classes of lines in all parts of China at present is slightly more than 6,500 miles. This does not include street railways or tramways, which will be referred to later. These railways can be divided into two general classes—first, loan-built railways owned or controlled by the Chinese; second, "concessioned" or foreign railways that have been built with foreign capital and are now subject to foreign control and operation.

The Chinese railways can again be divided into four groups, as follows: First, the Chinese Government railways, under the direction of the Ministry of Communications; second, private(stock-owned) railways, third, provincial railways; and fourth, industrial railways, usually owned by the industries served. The foreign railways were all built for strategic or political reasons, and at the time of their construction their commercial utility was a matter of secondary importance. Both the South Manchuria and Shantung railways have assumed in recent years much importance commercially; this is also true of the Chinese Eastern Railway and will be increasingly so regardless of what the developments may be in Russia proper.

Following is a tabulation of all the Chinese railways, following the above classification. This table shows the English name, the generally used Chinese name, the miles of line, the gauge of the track, the source of the capital, and the Provinces in which the railways are located. A special effort was made to include practically all the commercial railways in China. The mileage given in most cases was taken from the annual reports for the railways themselves or from data obtained from the Ministry of Communications, but in a few instances the mileage shown has been approximated. At present 28 miles of line of 2-foot 5-inch gauge are being constructed in Yunnan to connect with the French Yunnan line at Pechechi, and a further extension of this line, for a distance of about 45 miles, is contemplated. This Line is being built to develop tin mines at Kotcheou.

Railway Agreements.

Railway agreements in China can be divided into two distinct classes—first, railway concessions, which are really not agreements in a strict sense, and second, the class that can fairly be called railway loan agreements. It is well to understand that a railway loan in China is not the usual commercial transaction that it is in most other parts of the world, particularly in the United States or Canada, but is in fact a political issue between two or more nations, of which China is one of the principals.

^{*} Ihid p. 12.

As stated previously, it was thought that it would not be necessary to cover the subject of railway agreements in preparing this monograph on railway markets in China, but a brief study led to the conclusion that this would be a necessary or at least a very desirable feature of the report, to support some of the conclusions and suggestions made later.

The railway agreements of China have been discussed and written about to a considerable extent, but this appears to have been done in most cases from either the political or the financial viewpoint, as is very natural, since they were framed so largely from these standpoints. The writer's study however, was made from the viewpoint of the engineer confronted with construction, maintenance, and operation of these lines and the purchase of materials. equipment, and supplies to the best advantage. In this connection one of the features especially considered was the development of traffic between the several railways and the grouping and consolidating of the management of the various lines in the most economical arrangement. This should be permissible, since the Central Government is in most cases actually responsible, as the last source, for the interest on the loans; but in reality the restrictions of the loan agreements prevent the consolidation of the railways to the best advantage of the whole.

Gauge.

This seems an opportune place to call attention to the small amount of railway of other than 4 feet 8½ inches gauge. The latter may well be termed the standard gauge of China, particularly as regards the Chinese Government Railways. Only 168 miles out of a total of 4,251 miles of Commercial railways (foreign and industrial railways not included), or only about 4 per cent, is of other than the standard gauge; this 168 miles is all meter gauge, and most of it was built with the mistaken idea of building a cheap line. This fortunate result could hardly have been expected in view of the fact that the lines were built by engineers of many different nationalities and with different kinds of materials and equipment.

Proposed New Lines.

The writer's investigation did not contemplate an attempt to analyze the proposals for new lines, but it seems proper at this point to outline briefly the most important projects that are in course of construction or for which fairly definite agreements have been made. The most important of these are the Hukuang Railways (Four Nations Loan), the Pukow-Sinyang Railway (Chinese Central Railways, Ltd., British), the Shasi-Shingyifu Railway (Pauling & Co., Ltd., British), and the Siems-Carey (American) projects, as well as the extension of the Pienlo Railway (French), the Tao-Ching Railway (Peking Syndicate, British), and the Peking-Suiyuan

Railway (Chinese). The following sections outline the present status of the first four, and the last two will be referred to later in connection with the existing lines. There are a great many other projects, but most of them have had only paper consideration or reconnoissance at the most. The extensions of the Kirin-Changchun and the Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun lines will be mentioned in connection with Manchuria and the South Manchuria Railway (Japanese), by which they are actually controlled, although nominally Chinese Government Railways.

Hukuang Railways.

These proposed railways consist of two trunk lines—one between Canton and Hankow and the other between Hankow and Chengtu, the capital of the Province of Szechwan.

The Canton-Hankow line and branches total about 685 miles, of which 269 miles on the Hankow end is now practically complete. On the south end 140 miles is completed and is now being operated by a private company, but on the completion of the rest of this trunk line it will be taken over by the Ministry of Communications. This leaves about 250 miles to be finished. This is considered by far the most important railway in China to be completed. It will connect the thickly populated part of South China with Peking and Hankow and the other parts of Central and North China. No doubt, as soon as conditions warrant, steps will be taken to secure further loans for the completion of the work. The writer was informed that location surveys have been practically completed for the remaining parts of the line, and this should enable more accurate estimates to be made on the cost than has been the rule with many of the other lines.*

The Hankow-Szechwan line totals about 800 miles. No part of this line has been completed and very little effective construction work has yet been done, for the reason that the portion near Ichang partly completed by the provincial authorities before the taking over of this line by the Ministry of Communications has been abandoned to enable a line of better grade to be secured by the change of route.

Siems-Carey Projects.

The Siems-Carey Co. is an American corporation that has entered the field in China in recent years and that has a preliminary agreement for financing and constructing several hundred miles of railways for the ministry of Communications. There are a number of lines for which surveys and field studies of the routes are being arrived at regarding the cost and advisability of building the several lines under consideration. Under the circumstances, their construction is certainly very desirable, but a most serious difficulty has been encountered in the objections raised by persons who assert that the rights of their concessions are being invaded.

^{*}American Capital is interested in this line.

Group No. .1 | CHINESE GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS.

English name of railway.	Chinese name of railway.	Miles of line.	Gauge.	Source of capital.	Provinces in which railway is located.
Peking-Mukden Ching-Feng Peking-Suiyuan Kin-Sui Tientsin-Pukow Tsin-Pu Peking-Hankow Kin-Han Cheng-Tai	Clung-Feng Kun-Sui Tsin-Pu Kin-Han Cheng-Tai	600 688 814 151	14 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Anglo-Chinese Chinese Anglo-German Franco-British Franco-Belgian	Chihli and Sheng-king. Chihli and Shansi. Chihli, Shantung Kiangsu, and Anhwer. Chihli, Honan, and Hupeh. Chibli and Shansi.
Taokow-Chinghua	Tao Ching	95 344 203 178	E. 4 4 4 4 4 E. E. & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & &	86	Honan. Honan and Kiangsu. Kiangsu. Kiangsu and Chekiang.
Canton-Hankow Canton-Samshui Canton-Kowloon Changchow-Amoy	Yueh-Han Kwang-Sam Chui-Kuang Chang-Hsia	269 89	+++4 & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & &	(Hukuang) Chinese Anglo-Chinese Chinese	Hupeh, Hunan, and Kiangsu. Kwangtung. Kwangtung. Fukien.
Subtotal.		3,773	:		
Kirin-Chargchun Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun		80 32	4 81/2	8½ Sino-Japanese	Kirin (Manchuria). Kirin (Manchuria).
Total Group 1	Total Group I.	3,905	:	:	•

Group No. 2.—Chinese Private (Stock=Owned) Railways.

Total Group 2	: :	SunningH	
Total Group 2	Yueh-HanChao-Shan	Hsin-Ning	
234	140 27	67	
:	4 81/2 4 81/2	4 81/2	12. 12
:	4 8½ Chinese Kwangtung.	4 8½ Chinese Kwangtung.	
	Kwangtung.	Kwangtung.	

Group No. 3.—Chinese Provincial Railways.

Total Group 3	Kiangsi Nan-Shan 8; Tsitsihar Chao-Shan 1; Nanking City Railway 8; 8;	
:	4 8½ Meter Ft. In. 8 4 8½	Ft. In.
	4 8½ Sino-Japanese Kiangsu. Meter Chinese Heilungkiang (4 8½ Chinese Kiangsu.	
The state of the s	Kiangsu. Heilungkiang (Manchuria). Kiangsu.	

Group No. 4.—Chinese Industrial Railways.

	Tsat-Tsao	Kailan Mining A	Tayeh	
Total Group 4		\!ministration		
Total Group 4	Tsat-Tsao	Kailan Mining Administration.	Taveh	
50	27	0	7.1	
:	28.	4 % -	2 0	ŀt. In.
:	4 815 Chinese Shantung.	4 812 Anglo-Japanese Chihli.	2 0 Sino-Japanese Hupeh.	
	Shantung.	Chihli.	Hupch.	

Group No. 5.—"Concessioned" (Foreign) Railways.

Total Group 5	Canton-Kowloon	ShantungYunnan	South Manchuria	Chinese Eastern	
2,356	Chiu-Kuang	Santo (Chiao-Chi)	Nanman	Tung-Ching	
2,356	22	277	692	1,078	
:	4 8½ British	4 8½ Meter	4 81/2	5 o Russian.	u1 +31
:		Nieter French	4 81/2 Japanese		
	Kwangtung	Shantung. Yunnan	Shengking and Kirin	Kirin and Heilungkjang	

SUMMARY

	Total miles	MILES C	MILES OF LINE OF V	VARIOUS GAUGES	AUGES
GROUP	of line	5 feet (Russian)	4 ft. 81/2 ins. 3 (standard)	3 ft. 3.37 ins. (meter)	2 feet
Group No. 1.—Chinese Government Railways	3,905	:	3.754	II OH	: :
Group No. 3.—Chinese Provincial Railways	234	: :	55.4	17	::
Circup No. 4.—Chinese Industrial Railways	50	:	33		7.1
Total Chinese Railways, Group Nos. 1, 2, 3 and 4	4.301	:	4.1 6	168	17
Group No. 5.—Foreign Railways	2,356	1,078	991	287	:
Total of Railways in China 6,657	6,657	1.078	5.107	455	17

THE TRADE OF CHINA FOR 1919

Neither in the field of politics nor in that of commerce was the year 1010 lacking in features of exceptional interest. The conclusion in November 1918 of the Armistice, which put an end to four years' fighting in Europe, had raised high hopes the world over of a rapid return to prosperity and the inauguration of an era of universal peace particularly favorable to the satisfaction of national aspirations. Unfortunately, few of these high hopes have been fulfilled-could in the nature of things be fulfilled - in any quarter of the globe, and to China, no less than to other nations, peace brought disappointment and disillusion. To her young patriots, especially, who had been led to form exaggerated notions of the powers of the Peace Conference. the endorsement of the claims of Japan to the reversion of the treaty rights acquired by Germany in Shantung was an exceedingly bitter blow. Their resentment at once took the form of demands for the dismissal of all high officials supposed to be in league with Japan and thus led to the appearance-dramatic and effective for the momentof the student element on the already distracted political stage.

Early in May matters came to a head. On May 4th, a body of 3000 Peking students raided and sacked the residence of Mr. Ts ao Ju-lin (曹汝霖), Minister of Communications, who was obliged to seek safety in flight. Mr. Chang Tsung-hsiang (章宗祥), Minister to Japan, who happened to be in Mr. Ts'ao's house, was severely beaten and left unconscious. The arrest and detention of a number of these students roused a wave of feeling against the government, much intensified by the tone of the native Press, throughout the country. Meetings of merchants and students were held everywhere and a general boycott of Japanese goods decided on, to be followed by a general strike if the detained students were not released. At Shanghai a mass meeting took place on May 7th, at which the boycott was declared. At Peking, where martial law had been imposed, the students ceased their studies and declared themselves on strike on May 19th, but remained otherwise quiescent. Meanwhile the repressive measures of the government, disturbed by the intrigues of rival political factions—who seized the occasion to further their own ends-and by rumors of disaffection in the Peiyang army, had become increasingly obnoxious to all classes, and on June 3rd and 4th, the Peking students emerged en masse and commenced a campaign of street preaching and demonstrating which led to the arrest and detention of some hundreds of them. This at once evoked lively demonstrations of sympathy from students, merchants, soldiers, and even police, in every big city, as well as protests from provincial officials. In Shanghai, where the boycott had been declared but not forcibly imposed, the student associations succeeded in enforcing the closing of all retail shops on June 5th, and induced a general strike of operatives of all callings and trades, which gradually spread, paralyzed for some days the economic, industrial, and commercial life of Shanghai, and led to collision with the police and the death of some harmless natives at the hands of the mob. The release of the students on the 11th, followed by the resignations of Messieurs Ts'ao Ju-lin, Lu Tsung-yu (陸禁輿), Director of the Currency Bureau, and Chang-Tsung-hsiang, apparently satisfied those who were controlling the strike, and by June 14th,

the situation in Shanghai was normal once more. Nowhere else were events allowed to take so serious a turn. There was some disturbance at Canton, where advantage was taken of the occasion by the smaller retail shops to injure their big rivals, the department stores, and some violence at Hangchow. The boycott, however, has remained in active operation in most places throughout the year and seems likely to continue. No doubt it considerably injured Japanese trade, at the cost of heavy loss and much injustice to Chinese traders, and has served to engender and keep alive a feeling of bitterness and resentment on both side.

Whatever disappointments she may have suffered politically. however, in the sphere of trade China has no reason to complain of her share of the blessings of peace outside her borders that resulted from the Armistice of November 1918. After a period of uncertainty and hesitation the insatiable food hunger of Europe and the demand for raw materials made itself felt imperiously in all her markets. The value of her trade with foreign countries increased by 257 million taels as compared with 1918 and 337 million as compared with 1913. For the first time since statistics were available the value of her exports at the moment of shipment all but balanced that of her imports. Her Customs revenue rose from 36 million taels in 1918 and 44 million in 1913 to 46 million notwithstanding the low rate of exchange—about Tls. 3 to the pound sterling—at which her ad valorem import duties were paid. The persistent demand for her food products and certain of her raw materials, at any price, poured wealth into the pockets of her traders and for the moment has no doubt greatly benefited her farmers and artisans. Stimulated by this silver shower, the legitimate desire of her capitalists and merchants to be less dependent on foreign manufacturers has produced a regular boom in industrial enterprise through the country.3

Likin.

There is imposed on the interprovince and native commerce a tax called likin, which is unquestionably retarding the development of China's internal trade as well as putting an unwarranted restriction on the natural movement of traffic, particularly over the present railways. To an extent, at least, this tax helps the foreign trader who imports his goods, since he is allowed to pay this tax by a nominal ad valorem duty as he ships his goods to the various interior points from the open port, while the native trader has the substantial handicap of numerous inland impositions of this likin, causing much inconvenience as well as additional indirect expense and loss. That the imposition of these taxes as now applied is a very serious matter in connection with the development of Chinese railways and general business is very fully explained by Dr. C. C. Wang, formerly managing director of the Peking-Hankow Railway, as a conclusion to a series of articles on Chinese railways published in the Chinese Social and Political Science Review and republished in the December, 1917, number of the Far Eastern Review. The following is what Dr. Wang says on this subject:

^{*}From the Annual Report 1919 of F. S. Unwin, statistical Secretary. Chinese Maritime Customs.

Since likin only taxes the trader, one may question why we should advocate its abolition in connection with railway finance. The reason is that likin barriers bother the trader directly and hinder the railway indirectly. Railways, we may say once for all, depend upon the trader. What hurts the trader immediately hurts the railroad eventually. Therefore, in order to insure the prosperity of the railroad, one must endeavour to remove the difficulties which lie in the way of the trader. Generally speaking, there is hardly any other institution that is retarding the development of railway traffic more seriously than the imposition of likin along the railways. The difficulty does not lie so much in the amount which is collected as it does in the delay and damages, the cost of paying the taxes, and other inconveniences which arise from these collections. Indeed, the costs of the trader in paying his taxes are often more than the taxes themselves. The reported corruption, extortion, and purposely committed damage to goods by the likin collectors upon helpless traders are too notorious to need emphasis. When these facts are taken into account, it is really a credit to our traders that they can still survive.

But without going further into the question, we feel it safe to say that the abolition of such barriers will not only meet with the hearty welcome of the honest trader, but will as well prove a boon to the commerce of the whole country. And it is by the development of our commerce that our railways may earn more money, thus preparing to meet the approaching financial difficulties. What is lost by the abolition of likin will be more than made up by the increase of railway revenue. To make up the loss of Funds of the Ministry of Finance resulting from this abolition, the Government can easily require the railways to credit the Ministry with a lump sum every vear equal to the likin revenue derived from railway traffic, which the railways are probably willing to do. By so doing the Government will have everything to gain and nothing to lose. So it is safe to say that this is one of the very few reforms which will bring benefit to all and harm to none. The only people that will suffer from this reform will be the likin runners, and it is very likely that they will raise every opposition.*

Article VIII of the Mackay Treaty (Shanghai, 1902) states: "The Chinese Government, recognizing that the system of levying likin and other dues on goods at the place of production, in transit and at destination impedes the free circulation of commodities and injures the interests of trade, hereby undertake to discard completely those means of raising revenue with the limitation mentioned in section 8."

In exchange the British Government agreed to a surtax not exceeding 12½ per cent on foreign imports and 7½ per cent on exports, plus a consumption tax on articles of Chinese origin not intended for export. The agreement, however, has not yet come into operation. The question is complicated by the fact that the likin revenues of certain provinces are pledged under foreign loans.†

^{*}Far Lastern Markets for Railway Materials, Equipment, and Supplies. Page 29:30.

^{*}China Year Book, 1919. Page 123.

Maritime Customs Revenue 1910 to 1919

Table I.

Year	Foreign Trade	Home Trade	Total Revenue
	H. K. Taels	H. K. Taels	H. K. Taels
1910	28,699,277	6,872,602	35,571,879
1911	29,656 393	6,523,432	36,179,825
1912	32,332,086	7,618,526	39,950,612
1913	36,652,355	7,317,498	43,969,853
1914	32,150,395	6,767,130	38,913,525
1915	29,194,567	7,553 139	36,747 706
1916	30,566,093	7 198,218	37,764,311
1917	31,135,409	7,054,020	38,189,429
1918	29,599,509	6,745,536	36,345,045
1919	38,262,983	7,746,177	46,009,160

List of the Principal Chinese Products (Shown in Production Map, 1913 edition)				
Article.	Where From.			
Animal Products. Furs and Skins of Wild Beasts Skins, Lamb	Monchuria, Mangolia, the forests of Nanshan region, West Szechuan North Szechuan, Kansu, and Shensi. Mongolia and Tibet chiefly. Mongolia, Chihli, Shansi (the best)			
TT 1 D	Szechuan, Kueichow and the Yangtze Valley.			
Hides, Cow and Buffalo Horns, Cow and Buffalo Leather Tallov	Most parts.			
Bristles Egg Albumen Eggs Feathers	Principally Chihli, Honan, Hupeh, and Szechuan, also the Liang Kuang. Large Yangtze ports. The Yangtze Valley and the Kuangtung Delta.			
Cereals (Vide infra) Fibres Abutilon Hemp	Hupeh Almost all parts, but chiefly Hukiang and Liang Kuang Provinces.			
Jute Ramie	Chihli. Szechuan, Kiangsi, and Hupeh. (In Kuangtung the local product is made into Grass-cloth)			
Metals Antimony	Almost all Hunan also Kuangsi and Yunnan. For Foreign export, practically all from			
Iron Lead Quicksilver Tin Zinc	Tayeh, Hupeh, but it is found in many provinces. Chiefly Hunan, also North Yunnan. Great deposits right across Kueichow. South Yunnan. Hunan.			
Seeds Oil-bearing.				

Sova Beans

Ground-nuts.

Rape

Sesamuni

Sundry:— Castor Oil Mustard. Perilla

Other Kinds Apricot Cotton Melon

Silk White Yellow Wild

Tea Black

Green

Timber (including Bamboos)

Aniseed China-root Chinaware Coal

Cotton

Fungus Lily Flowers Musk Nutgalls

Sugar Tobacco Manchuria, Honan, Chihli, Shantung, and Central Yangtze.

All parts, except in high regions; Shantung (best), mostly Kuangtung. Chiefly Central Manchuria, Anhui, Kiangsu, Chekiang, and Szechuan.
Manchuria, Honan, and developing Shantung.

Manchuria Chihli, etc. Chiefly Mongolia and Yunnan. Manchuria.

Chihli and Shantung.
Honan, Hupeh, Kiangsu, and Chekiang.
Manchuria, Hupeh, and the Yangtze
Valley.

Chekiang, Kiangsu, and Kuangtung. Shantung and Szechuan. South Manchuria, Shantung, and Kueichow.

Hupeh, North Kiangsi, Hunan, Fukien, and Kuangtung.

Kiangsi, South Anhui, Chekiang, Fukien and Kuangtung.

East and North Manchuria, the Nanshan Range (North Chekiang, South Anhui, Fukien South Hunan North Kuangtung, South Kiangsi, South Kueichow, and Kuangsi).

Kuangsi. Hupeh and Liang Kuang. Kiangse and Kuangsi.

Manchuria, Chihli, Shansi, Honan, and Shantung.

Chihli, Honan Shantung, Hupeh, and

Chekiang. Chungking, Hupeh and Kuangsi.

Hupeh and Kiangsi. West Szechuen.

Szechuan, Kueichow, Hupeh and

Kuangsi. Liang Kuang.

Manchuria, Kansu. Hupeh, Kiangsi,

Fukien and Liang Kuang.*

Cereals:—The export abroad of Cereals is not permitted. Rice does not grow much north of the 32nd parallel, except in Kiangsu, but it is the staple food south of this. Wheat, Barley, and Millet grow in the drier north, but wheat also is grown in the south as a secondary crop to Rice. Kaoliang is the staple food in Manchuria, and Maize in North Yunnan and parts of the neighboring provinces. Oats are found in Mongolia, Kansu, and Kueichow; Rye, only in Kansu.

^{*}China Year Book 1919. Page 41-42.

Considerable quantities of rice have been smuggled out of China to foreign lands by arrangements with military officers.

Value of Foreign Trade of China, 1910 to 1919

Table I. Gross Value.

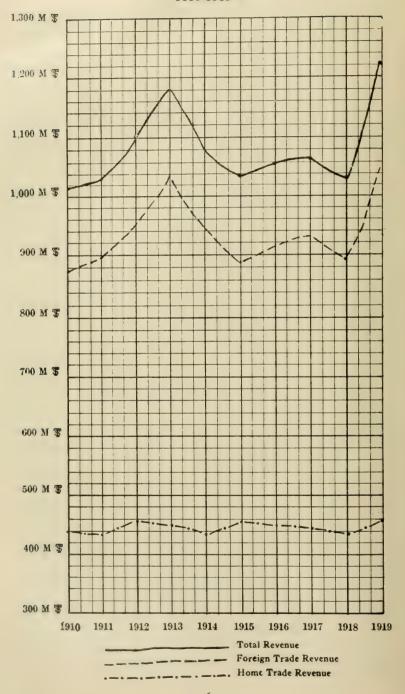
	Gross	Exp	orts		Grand
Year	Imports	Chinese Produce	Foreign Produce	Total	Total
	H. K. Taels	H. K. Taels	H K. Taels	H. K. Taels	H. K. Taels
1910	476,553,402	380,833,328	13,588,508	394,421,836	870,975,238
1911	482,576,127	377,338,166	11,072,184	388,410,350	870,986,477
1912	485,726,080	370,520,403	12,629,049	383,149,452	868,875,532
1913	586,290,431	403,305,546	16,127,874	419,433,420	1,005,723,851
1914	584,209,003	356,226,629	14,967,621	371,194,250	955,403,253
1915	477,064,005	418,861,164	22,588,286	441,449,450	918,513,450
1916	535,268,426	481,797,366	18,861,431	500,658,797	1,035,927,223
1917	577,381,339	462,931.630	27,862,565	490,794,195	1,068,175,534
1918	577,643,803	485,883,031	22,750,271	508,633,752	1,086,277,555
1919	679,529,544	630,809,411	32,431,863	663,341,274	1,342,870,818

Table II. Net Value.

Year	Net Imports *	Exports	Total
	H. K. Taels	H. K. Taels	H. K. Taels
1910	462,964,894	380,833,328	843,798,222
1911.	471,503,943	377,338,166	848,842,109
1912	473,097,031	370,520,403	843,617,434
1913	570,162,557	403,305,546	973,463,103
1914	569,241,382	356,226,629	925,468,011
1915	454,475,719	418,861,164	873,336,883
1916	516,406,995	481,797,366	998,204,361
1917	549,518,774	462,931,630	1,012,450,404
1918	554,893,082	485,883,031	1,040,776,113
1919	545,997,681	630,809,411	1,277,807,092

^{*} Net imports, i.e. the value of foreign goods imported direct from foreign countries, less the value of the foreign goods re-exported to foreign countries during the year.

Graph Showing Martime Customs Revenue 1610-1919



A List of Fifteen Imported Goods, Which Individually Represented Highest Value in the Whole of China's Imports, 1919

	Articles	Value
		H, K. Taels
1	Cotton Goods	209,786,337
2	Oils, Kerosene, Lubricating, Vegetable	50,948,649
3	Sugar, and Sugar Cane	. 35,319,324
4	Iron and Mill Steel, New and Old, Sheets and Wires	29,675,069
5	Cigars, Cigarettes, and Tobacco	27,210,530
6	Vehicles of All Description	18,098,461
7	Machineries, Agricultural, Embroidering, Knitting, and Sewing	14,710,558
8	Coal	12,517,418
9	Paper and Cardboard	10,212,652
10	Dyes, Colors, and Paints	9,133,407
11	Leather, Skin and Hides	8,160,753
12	Miscellaneous Piece Goods	6,715,189
13	Soap, and Materials .	6,438,638
14	Wine, Beer, Spirits, etc.	4,591,521
15	Woolen Goods	3,614,055

Chart Showing Fifteen Highest Valued Imported Articles

	C AN 10. 11 17 TO 10. 200 786. 337
	Cotton Goods: th. In. Lacis 209, 780, 537
Oils: H. K. Taels 50.948,649	
Sugar and Sugar Cane: H. K. Taels 35,319,324	
Iron and Mill Steel: H. K. Taels 29,675,069	
Cigars, Cigarettes, and Tobacco: H. K. Taels 27,210,530	
Vehicles: H. K. Taels 18,098,461	
Machineries: H. K. Taels 14,710,558	
Coal: H. K. Taels 12,517,418	
Paper and Cardboard: H. K. Taels 10,212,652	
Dyes, Colors, and Paints: H. K. Taels 9,133,407	
Leather, Skins and Hides: H. K. Taels 8,160,753	
Miscellaneous Piece Goods: H. K. Taels 6,715,189	
Soap and Soap Making Materials: H. K. Taels 6,438,638	
Wine, Beer, Spirits, etc,: H. K. Taels 4,591,521	
Woolen Goods: H. K. Taels 3,614,055	

List of Ten Ports Contributing Biggest Portions to the Customs Revenue, 1919

Name	Province	Estimated	Customs'
of Port	Situated	Population	Receipts
			H. K. Taels
Shanghai	Kiangsu	1,000,000	14,289,736.506
Tientsin	Chihli	800,000	5,203,386.496
Dairen	Shengking	62,600	4,556,924.197
Hankow	Hupeh	1,459,500	4,214,599.096
Canton	Kwangtung	900,000	2,471,934.198
Kiaochow	Shantung	53,900	1,666,794.930
Antung	Shengking	77,100	1,345,215.832
Wuhu	Anhui	99,900	1,182,837.769
Swatow	Kwangtung	85,000	1,049,737,067
Nanking	Kiangsu	392,100	751,969.578

Joint Enterprises in China

Remarks.	Redeemed by China in 1908	Now under operation.		Now pending Invalidated	prescription Abandoned	1905.	Pending.	Pending.
Year orporated.	1898	8981		8981	6681		1902	1902
Capital Year Incorporated.	Tls. 10,000,000 1898	Tls. 10,000,000 1898		Tfs. 10,000,000 1898	Tls. 10,000,000	\$5,000,000	Unknown 1902	2,000,000, 1902
	TIS.	TIs.		TIS.	TIs.			T1s.
Enterprise,	Coal, petroleum and iron in Shansi	Coal, petroleum and iron in Honan	Coal, petroleum and iron in Honan	Szechuan Coal	in Szechuen Coal in	Anhui	Petroleum in Szechuen	Lead Mines in Kuangsi
Chinese Capitalists	Shansi Board of Trade	Yufeng Kungssu	Huayi Kungssu	Mining Bureau Paofu	Kungssu Anhui	Commer- cial	Bureau Paofu Kungssu	Tiensheng Kungssu
Foreign	Peking Syndicate	33	British Syndicate (Huitung	Kungasu.) French	Syndicate Tsurumitsu	Dogura	Hohcheng Kungssu	Yuanhung Kungssu (French)
The Name of	Fukungssu	:	Huitung Kungssu	T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T T	Kungssu	Mining Co.	Hohcheng Kungssu	Yuanhung Kungssu
Namer dities.	British and Chinese	•	British and Chinese	Hench and	Chinese Ind	Chinese	French and Chinese	ĉ .

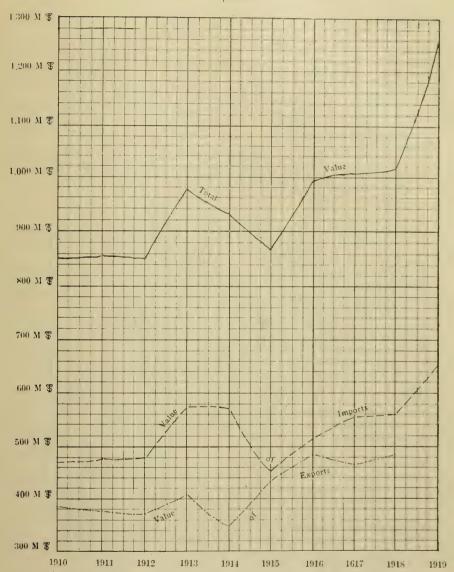
	Abandoned Pending		Pending	Invalidat- ed by pre- scription.	Kecovered by China and work- ing since	Invalidated by prescription	Recovered by China and now	since 1908			Abandoned	of flood.
	1902	1902	1901	1902	1904	9061		1905	1896	8681	1905	nown
	2,000,000 1902	\$600,000	50,000,000	\$7.480,000	\$17.500,000 1904	2,000,000		2,500,000 1905	45,000,000	Mks. 70,00 0 ,000 1898	500.000 1905	\$1,000,000 Unknown
	Tis.		TIs.			T1s.	T.Is. after incer	T1s.	Rbls. Tls.	Mks	TIs.	00'14
Lead Mines	Kweichow Antimony	m Kweichow Varions Mines	in Yunnan	Various Mines in Fukien	Petroleum, Iron and Coal in Szechuan Mica and	in Kweichow	Coal in Shantung		Banking	Kailway and Mining Coal	in Chinghsing Chihli	Coal at Mentowkow
Puan	Paohsing	Kungssu	Kungssu	Huayu Kungssu	Paofu Kungssu	Tienyi Kungssu	Representation of Commis-	sioner Yu of North China	Chinese Govt.	Chinese Govt. Chihli	Government	Chinese Capitalists
Laifu	Kungssu (French) Hsiangli	Kungssu (French)	Kungssu (Anglo	French Corp.) Tatung Kungssu (French)	Puchi Kungssu (French)	Toal Kungssu (French)	Carlowitz Co.		Russian	German Syndicate Von	Hanneken	British Capitalists
Laifu	Kungssu , Hsiangli	Kungssu	Hsinglung Kungssu	Tatung Kungssu	Kiangpei Meikwang Kungssu	Talo Kungssu	Changhsing Meikwangssu		Russo-Asiatic Bank	Shantung Railway Co.	Mining Administration	Mentowkow Mining Adm.
French and	Chinese .	; ;	British, French Hsinglung and Chinese Kungssu	French and Chinese	French and Chinese	French and Chinese	German and Chinese		Russian and Chinese	German and Chinese	66	British and Chinese

Rena											
Yea neorporates:		1911	19.0			0161	1906		1000 E	7001	8061 1908
Capital		11s. 3,000,000	Y. 7.000,000 \$3,100,000	\$200,000	Tls. 400,000	1. 100,000	\$3.000,000		1. 2,000,000	000°008	Y. 3,000,000 \$150,000
Enterprise	;	Banking Coal and iron Mann-	facturing Lumber in Manchuria	milling in Shanghai			Various enterprises Manchuria		Oil Man- ufacture in	Manchuria Banking in Manchuria	
Chinese Capitalists	Chinese Govt.	Fengtien Govt.	Chinese Govt.	Chinese capitalists	6		÷	:	:	:	£
Foreign Syndicate	Messrs Okura, and Arnhold,	Karberg Okura and Co.	Japanese Gov.	Japanese capitalists		;	£	*	**	Yasuda Bank	and N.C. K., Okura
He Name of	Merchants Guarantee Banks of	Chihli Penhsihu Mining Co.	Yalu Timber Co.	Liuta Flour Mill	Shanghai Silk Filature	Shanghai Silk Works	Changtu Co.	Yingkow Water and	Electric Works Santai Oil Mill	Seiryu Bank	Mukden Horse Car Co.
Nationalities.	Japanese	Chinese Japanese and Chinese	:	÷		<i>:</i>	:	:	:		\$

7001	1912	1913	1912	1915	1014	1013	01I	1916	1916
\$300,000 1907	£2,000,000	Fcs. 45,000,000	Y. 5,000,000	X. 500,000 1915	\$2, 0 00,000,00\$	Y. 1,000,000 1913	\$50,000 1-10	Y. 500.005 1916	Y. 500,000 1916
Match factory in Changchung Bean-cake business in	Coal Mining Mining in Honan		Flour Milling in Tientsin	Mining	concern at Shanghai				
ž ž	Lanchow M. Adm. Chungyung Kungssu	Chinese Gov. Chinese capitalists	ī	Yalu Timber Co.	Chinese capitalists	¢.		:	
Japanese capitalists ",	Kaiping Mining Adm. Peking Syndicate	French capitalists Japanese capitalists	:	Okura and Co.	Japanese capitalists	÷	£	: :	
Sino-Japanese Match Factory Hsintai Kungssu	Kailan Mining Adm. Fuchung Corporation	Fungfa Industrial Bank Sino- Japanese	Industrial Development Co. Shouhsing Mill	Yalu Lumber Co.	Hsunchi Kungssu	Dairen Exchange and Trust Co.	Mukden Trust Co.	Trust and Exchange Co.	Trust and Evchange Co.
:	British and Chinese British, French and Chinese	French and Chinese Japanese and Chinese	£	:		፡	:	:	

Remarks.								
Venr reporated.	7161	2161	1516	2161	9161	8161	1919	1920
Sapital Neorporated.	Y. 1,000,000 1917	7.100,000 1917	N. 2,500,000 1516	Υ. 200,000 1917	Y. 5,000,000 1916	Y. 1,000,000 1918	G. \$ 10,000,000 1919	G. St. Lire 16,000,000 1920
Enterprise			Manufact-	tools etc.			Banking	Banking
Capitalists			:		÷	:	6	÷
Poreign Syndicate	:		K. Yasukawa	Japanese capitalists	:	:	American Capitalists	Italian Banks
The Name of Corporation,	China Electric Mfg Co.	Shanghai Electric	Yasukawa Iron Work	Kunghsing Iron Works	Sino-Japanese Exchange	Salik Chinetao Bailway Co	Commercial and Industrieal	Rank of China Sino—Italian Bank
Nationalities.	:	÷	:			÷	American and Chinese	Italian and Chinese

Graph Showing
Net Value of Foreign Trade of China
1910-1919



Value of Direct Trade Between China and the United States, Great Britain, and Japan,

		Total	211,355,383	Total		406,605,321	Total		441,947,029
	1910	110.236.706	101,118,677		217,923,783	188,681,538		246,940,997	195,006,032
	1918	Total	135,820,249	Total		254,334,719	Total		402,252,670
	19	58,080,004	77,134,205		212,082,109	142,252,610		238,858,578	163,394,092
	1917	Total	155,747,006	Total		352.524,328	Total		327,440,710
1915 to 1919	10	722.096.09	94,786,229		210,591,623	141,932,705		221,666,891	105,773,819
19]		Total	125,904,504	Total		378,104,849	Total		273,412,978
	1916	53.823.799	72,080,725		223,700,653	154,404.196		160,490,720	112,922,258
	ις.	Total	97,622,709	Total		356,099,483	Total		197,926,331
	1915	37.043,449	60,579,257		219,994,924	136,104,559		120,249,514	77,676,817
	Country	U. S. of America (Including Hawaii)	Exports to	(ireat Britain (Including Hongkong)	Imports from 219,994,924	Exports to	Japan (Including Formosa)	Imports from 120,249,514	Exports to

A list of fifteen exported goods, which individually represented highest value in the whole of China's exports, 1919

	ARTICLES	VALUE
		H. K. Taels
1.	Silk of All Kinds	138,071,953
2.	Beans, Beancake, and Beancurd	83,240,699
3.	Oils: Bean, Cotton Seed, Groundnut. Rape Seed. Sesamum, Tea, Wood. Vegetable, Other Kinds	46,876,171
4.	Skins, Hides, Furs	40,086,368
5.	Cotton Gins, Raw Cotton. Waste Cotton	30,789,812
6.	Egg Albumen and Yolk, Eggs: Fresh and Preserved and Frozen	24,923.494
7.	Teas of All Descriptions	22,398,436
8.	Wheat and Wheat Flour	20,947,599
9.	Cereals: Barley, Maize, Millet, Kaoliang (Sorghum). Oats, Rice and Paddy, Other Kinds	15,968,603
10.	Iron Ore, Pig Iron, and Other Iron Articles like Bars, Billets, Plates, and Sheets	10,906,097
11.	Meats: Poultry and Game and Cattle, Prepared and Preserved, Fresh and Frozen	7,954,560
12.	Straw Braid	7,717,587
13.	Tobacco: Leaf, Stalk, and Prepared	7,127,138
. 14.	Pottery, Chinaware, and Earthenware	4,533,052
15.	Fish and Fishery Products, Fresh and Frozen, Dry and Salt	1,201,540

Silas : H. K. Tack 138,071,053 Chart Showing Fifteen Highest Valued Exported Articles

Beans, Beancake, and Beancurd; II. K. Taels 83,240,699 Kinds: II. K. Taels 40,080,303 Skins, Hides, Furs: H. K. Taels 40,080,303 Eggs, Egg Albumen and Egg Yolk; H. K. Taels 24,923,494 Eggs, Egg Albumen and Egg Yolk; H. K. Taels 24,923,494 Teas; H. K. Taels 22,398,430 Wheat and Wheat Flour; H. K. Taels 20,947,599 Iron Ore, Pig Iron and Iron Articles; H. K. Taels 10,906,097 Meats; H. K. Taels 7,054,960 Straw Braid; H. K. Taels 7,127,587 Tobacco; H. K. Taels 7,127,138	Pottery, Chinaware, and Earthenware; H. K. Taels 4533,052 Fish and Fishery Products: H. K. Taels 1,201,540
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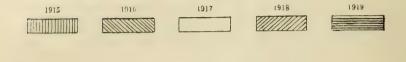
Shipping: Vessels Entered to and Cleared from Chinese Ports, 1915 to 1919

1 lag		1915		1916		1917		1918		1910
	i Š	Tons.	Š	Tons.	S. S.	Toms.	No.	Toms,	No.	Tons.
American	3,148	804,414	3,082	799,913	3,609	1,125,155	3,119	1,214,921	4,433	2,569,887
British	33,339	37,675,657	34,132	35,840,573	34,902	33,576,217	31,034	29,911,369	30,074	36.284,312
	€	115,628	115	206,734	83	142,238	%	86,847	93	185.697
Dutch	287	496,664	233	463,995	374	712,439	41.0	575,757	302	461,782
French		561,955	60+	596,237	328	584,891	305	230,223	171	414,101
German		68.263	1,151	66,532	233	17,054	:		:	:
:		;	57	026	478	14,912	164	23,796	298	53,142
Japanese	20,141	23,873,016	21,598	24,233,835	22,454	24,581,647	24,961	25,283,373	27,182	27,532,440
Norwegian	726	774,873	47.2	636,217	370	474,349	.191	257,069	311	302 959
Portuguese	784	152,021	0++	129,478	450	199,438	172	60,350	118	50.292
:		1,922,055	3,790	1,545,085	3.276	1,429,200	1,940	795,520	2,803	ナノナ、アラハ
Swedish	70	05+'69	34	101,948	10	26,692	S.	20,168	<u>x</u>	53,650
Non-Treaty Powers	:	:	~1	1,466	:	;	•	:	10	19,368
Chinese Shipping *	43,282	18,655,411	45,552	18,460,533	40,422	18,517,957	43,638	16,984,523	19,043	22.558,448
Chinese Junks §	98,683	5.503.598	90,949	4,936,576	100,478	5,504,860	87,164	4,708,181	88,532	4,536,314
the state of the s					_					
Total	206.877	90,663,005	202,016	88,020,101	213,473	86,907,949	193,567	80,247,700	209,754	95,725,935

^{*} Vessels of Foreign Type, owned by Chinese, and under the Chinese Flag.

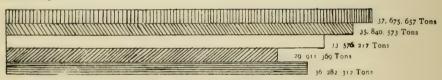
8 Vessels of Chinese type, built and owned by Chinese, entered and cleared at the Maritime Customs.

Chart Showing American British, and Japanese Tonnage Entered to and Cleared from Chinese Ports 1915 to 1919

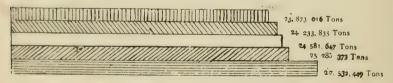


American Tonnage 804, 414 Tons 799, 913 Tons 1, 125, 155 Tons 1, 214, 921 Tons 2, 569, 887 Tons

British Tonnage



Japanese Tonnage

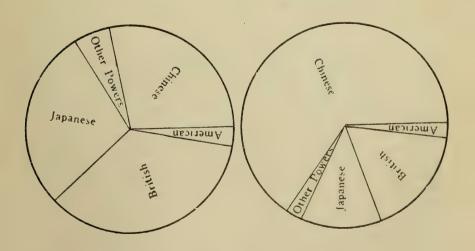


Percentages of Foreign Vessels Entered to and Cleared from Chinese Ports in year of 1919

Flag	Total Trips	Tounage employed	Flag	Total Trips	Tonnage employed
American	2.11	2.68	Norwegian	0.15	0.32
British	17.20	37.90	Portuguese	0.06	0.05
Danish	0.04	0.20	Russian	1.34	0.74
Dutch	0.17	0.48	Swedish	0.01	0.06
French	0.22	0.43	Non-Treaty		
Italian	0.14	0.06	Powers	0.01	0.02
Japanese	12.96	28.76	Chinese	65.59	28.30
. Total	33.84	70.51	Total	100.00	100.00

Chart Showing Percentages of Foreign Vessels Entered to and Cleared from Chinese Ports, 1919

Number of Vessels (Percentages) Tonnages of Vessels (Percentages)



Share Taken by Each Nationality in the Carrying Trade from and to Foreign Countries and between the Open Ports of China; and the Proportion Borne by Each Share to the Whole Trade.

- 1919 -I.—TOTAL VALUE OF THE TRADE

	Foreign Trade		Coast Trade		Total Value	
Nation	Imports	Exports	Outwards	Inwards	Total Value	
	H.K. Taels	H.K. Taels	H.K. Taels	H.K. Taels	H.K. Taels	
American	44,844,845	34,456,982	11,697,405	10,936,661	101,935,893	
British	219,711,093	222,500,973	301,285,538	301,698,144	1,045,195,748	
Danish	1,378,275	4,998,629	162,921	41,013	6,580,838	
Dutch	9,471,241	2,503,511	235,960	717,122	12,927,834	
French	11,456,241	26,383,185	314,283	843,216	38,996,925	
German	368				368	
Italian	40,400	458,644	12,566	10,780	522,390	
Japanese	305,396,148	283,376,024	153,159,775	145,826,677	887,758,624	
Norwegian	2,694,430	4,683,026	3,909,307	4,274,511	15,561,274	
Portuguese	696,439	909,025	14,886	10,577	1,630,927	
Russian	13,680,428	33,083,312	2,345,916	3,889,453	52,999,109	
Spanish						
Swedish	488,181	2,052,344			2,540,525	
Non-Treaty Powers	1,111.	53,896	749		55,756	
Chinese	69,670,344	47,881,723	306,080,837	301,872,152	725,505,056	
Total	679,529,544	663,341,274	779,200,143	770,120,306	2,892,211,267	

II.—TOTAL DUTIES

Nation	Foreign Trade		Coast	Total Duties	
	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Total Duties
	H.K. Taels	H,K. Taels	H,K. Taels	H.K. Taels	H.K. Taels
American	1,400,430.995	293,082,313	112,328.287	18,328,287	1,824,170.512
British	6,628,580.773	2,960,118,896	3,993,977.811	1,153,088.135	14,753,774.615
Danish	41,045.585	78,829.851		1,187.202	121,062.638
Dutch	190,167,945	42,221.328	1,545,474	3,010.630	236,945.377
French	257,742.607	264,191.216	10,073.158	10,204.520	542,211.483
German					
Italian		4,530.733	371.967	100.000	4,902.700
Norwegian	8,558,959.871	4,801,753.091	1,656,020.817	573,735.686	15,590,469.465
Portuguese	89,155.104			8,530,910	164,932.000
Russian	21,390.740		352.908	184.510	36,152.748
Spanish	159,658.471	473,356.126	67,459 082	24,698.519	725,172.198
Swedish	20,850,384	52,539.283	• •		73,389.667
Powers	69.331	594.912			664.243
Chinese	1,492,299.051	658,110.248	4,282,494.745	1,560.327.601	7,993,231.645
Total	18,860,359,857	9.682,208.889	10,153,114.785	3,353,395.982	42,049,079.513

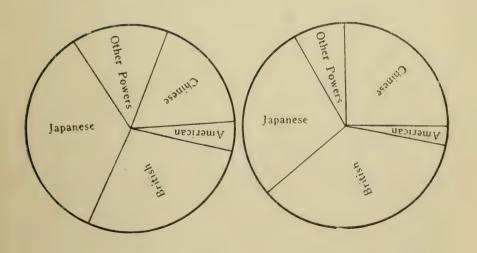
III. Percentages of Value of Trade and Amount of Revenue

Nation	Total Value	Total Revenue	Nation	Total Value	Total Revenue
	Percentage	Percentage		Percentage	Percentage
American	3.52	4.34	Norwegian	0.54	0.39
British	36.14	35.04	ł ortuguese	0.06	0.09
Danish	0.23	0 29	Russian	1.83	1.73
Dutch	0.06	0.56	Swedian	0.19	0.09
French	1.35	1.29	Non-Treaty		
Italian	0.02	0.01	Powers		
Japanese	30.69	37.08	Chinese	25.08	19.09
Total	72.01	78.61	Total	100.00	100.00

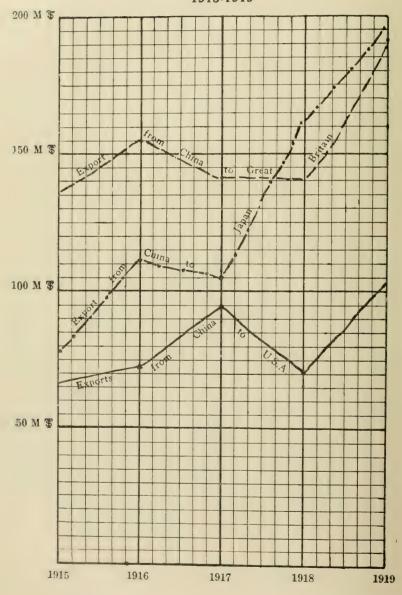
IV. Charts Showing the Percentages

Value of Trade

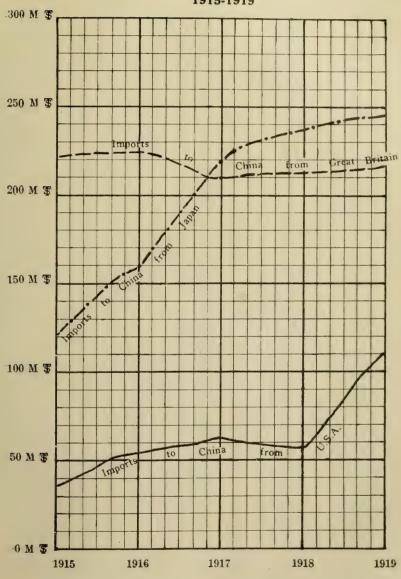
Amount of Revenue



Graph Showing Value of Imports from the United States, Great Britain, and Japan 1915-1919



Graph Showing Value of Imports from the United States, Great Britain, and Japan 1915-1919



Statistical Information Concerning China's Treaty Ports

A. Customs Stations

				_
Port	Province	Date of Opening	By Treaty With	Popula- tion 1919
-				
1 Aigus	Heilungkiang	July, 1909	Japan, 1905	14,000
1. Aigun 2. Amov	Fukien	April, 1909	Great Britain, 1842	114,000
3. Antung	Shengking	March, 1907	United States, 1903	77,000
4. Canton	Kwangtung	Oct., 1859	Great Britain, 1842	900,000
5. Changsha	Hunan	July, 1904	Japan, 1903	535,800
6. Chefoo	Shantung	March, 1862	Great Britain, 1858	54,000
. 7. Chinkiang	Kiangsu	April. 1861	Great Britain, 1858	101,900
8. Chinwangtao	Chihli	Dec., 1911	Imperial Decree 1898	5,000
9. Chungking	Szechuan	March, 1891	Great Britain, 1890	495,800
10. Dairen	Shengking	July, 1907	(1)	62,600
11. Foochow	Hukien	July, 1861	Great Britain, 1842	624,000
12. Hangchow	Chekiang	Oct., 1896	Japan, 1895	689,200
13. Hankow	Hupeir	Jan., 1862	Great Britain, 1858*	1,459,500
14. Harbin	Kirin	July, 1909	Japan, 1905	115,700
15. Hunchun	Kirin	Jan., 1910	Japan, 1905	4,600
16. Ichang	Hupeh	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1876	55,000
17. Kiaochow	Shantung	July, 1899	Crost Pritain 1959	77,052
18. Kiukiang	Kiangsi	Jan., 1862 'April, 1876	Great Britain, 1858 Great Britain, 1858	36,000
19. Kiungchow 20. Koogmoon	Kwangtung Kwangtung	March, 1904	Great Britain, 1902	59,300 75,000
21. Kowloon	Kwangtung	April, 1897	Great Britain, 1886	75.000
22. Lappa	Kwangtung	June, 1871	Circat Britain, 1660	
23. Lungching	Kirin	Jan., 1910	Japan, 1905	3,300
24. Lungchow	Kwangsi	June, 1889	France, 1886	13,000
25. Manchuli	Heilungkiang	Feb., 1907	Japan, 1905	6,200
26. Mengtze	Yunnan	Aug., 1889	France, 1886	10,000
27. Nanking	Kiangsu		France, 1858	392,100
28. Nanning	Kwangsi	Jan., 1907	Great Britain, 1897	50.000
29. Newchuang	Shengking	May, 1864	Great Britain, 1858	64.500
30. Ningpo	Chekiang	May, 1861	Great Britain, 1842	674,000
31. Pakhoi	Kwangtung	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1876	20,000
32. Samshui	Kwangtung	June, 1897	Great Britain, 1897	6,000
33. Samsing	Kirin	July, 1909	Japan, 1905	15.300
34. Santuao	Fukien	May, 1899	Inperial Decree, 1898	8,000
35. Shanghai	Kiangsu	June, 1854	Great Britain, 1842	1,000,000
36. Shasi 37. Soochow	Hupeh		Japan, 1895	105,000
38. Suifenho	Kiangsu Kirin		Japan, 1895	500,000
39. Swatow			Japan, 1895	4,200
40. Szemao	Kwangtung Yunnan	Jan., 1860 Jan., 1897	Great Britain, 1858	85,000
41. Tatungko	Shengking	9 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	France, 1895 Japan, 1903	20,000
42. Tengyueh	Yunnan	May, 1902	Great Britain, 1897	4,200
43. Tientsin	Chihli	May, 1861	Great Britain, 1860	10,000
44. Wenchow	Chekiang	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1858	210,000
45. Wuchow	Kwangsi	June, 1897	Great Britain, 1897	40,000
46. Wuhu	Anhui	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1876	99,900
47. Yatung	Thibet	May, 1894	Great Britain, 1893	
48. Yochow	Hunan	Nov., 1899	Imperial Decree 1898	4,500

⁽¹⁾ By an Agreement dated May 30, 1907, Japan undertook to place the Dairen Customs under the control of the Maritime Customs.

⁽²⁾ By an Agreement dated Dec 2, 1905, Germany placed the Kiaochow Customs under the control of the Maritime Customs.

^{*} Including Wuchang and Hanyang.

B. Open to Trade

In addition to the above "ports," the following places have been declared open to international trade:—

In	Mongolia Taonan	٠.								Japan,	1905
In	Manchuria										
	Mukden			(S	hengki	ng)				U.S.,	1903
	Fakumen				11					Japan	1905
	Fenghuachens	3			٠,					,,	
	Hsinmintun				,,					11	٠,
	Tiehling				,,					**	
	Tungkiangtse								.:	••	• •
	Yingkou	٠.			٠,				٠.	••	,,
	Liaoyang				,,		• •	• •		**	**
	Taonan						• •		• •	**	1915
	Changchun	• •		1	(Kirin)	• •			**	1905
	Kirin		• •		**		• •	• •	• •	**	**
	Ninguta		• •		**		• •		• •	**	1000
	Chuitzuchien	• •	• •		٠,					**	1909
	Toutoukou	• •			1.9		• •	• •		**	**
	Paitsaokou Tsitsihar	• •	• •	/II-::	,, [• •		• •	**	1905
	Hailar	• •	• •	(Fiei	lungki	ang)	• •		• •	٠,	
	Hailai	• •	• •		11		• •		• •	**	**
In	Chihli										
	Chihfeng									Japan,	1914
	Dolonor									*1	**
	Kueihuacheng									**	٠,
	Hulutao							• •		••	**
	Kalgan						• •		• •	••	**
In	Sinkiang										
	Kashkar			••		• •				Russia	1860
In	Shantung										
	Choutsun							Im	perial	Decree	1904
	Lungkou						• •			Japan	1915
	Tsinanfu					• •		Im	perial	Decree	1904
	Weihaiwei							(Lease	d to G	reat Brit	
	Weihsien		• •			• •	• •	lm	perial	Decree	1904
₹n I	Kiangsu										
	Woosung	••	• •		• •	••		Imp	perial	Decree	1898

	Kwangtung Hongkong Macao Kwangchouwa	 an				(Co	to Great Britain) eded to Portugal) Leased to France)
	Szechuan Wanhsien (C	ustoms Bra	nch on	ly)			
In '	Thibet Gartok* Gyangtze*		11 April	Tuostus	Conta	nher 7 100	94 (Confirmed by
Chi	*Great Bi na, April 27, 1		прегап	Ticaty	, Schter	iiber 7, 1%	74 (Comminda by
			C. I	Ports	of Call		
1.	Yangtze Stage a. Tatung (A b. Anking (c. Hukow (K d. Wusueh (I e. Lukikou (f. Kiangyin (g. Icheng (h. Huangchit i. Huangcho	nhui); liangsi) Hupeh); (Kiangsu); hkang (Hu	eh)	For Passeng and Carg		or .	By Chefoo Agreement tember 13, 1876 Yangtze Regulations August, 1898
II.	West River a. Kumchuk b. Shuihsing c. Paktou d. Takhing e. Lating f. Dosing g. Fungtsun h. Kaukong i. Yutshing j. Lukpo k. Howlik l. Lutu m. Maning n. Yungan o. Kulo p. Jungki	(Kwangtu	mg)		ngers]	Mackay T Burma Ag Mackay T	reement Feb., 1897

^{*} China Year Book, 1919



Li Yuan-nung Third President of China



MINERAL PRODUCTION

Coal

China, no doubt, has very large, varied, and valuable coal resources, but it is difficult to obtain definite data concerning them. The Japanese have thoroughly proved the fields they control in South Manchuria, at Fushun, Yentai, and Penchihu. The Fushun field on the Fushun Branch of the South Manchuria Railway, 236 miles north of Dairen, contains about 800,000,000 long tons and carries a high percentage of nitrogen, and there is a very complete Mond gas plant, producing a considerable amount of ammonia. The Yentai field near the main line of the South Manchuria Railway,* about 225 miles north of Dairen, contains a much smaller quantity of steaming coal. These two fields are controlled by the South Manchuria Railway and are both equipped with modern apparatus; with a total of approximately 20,000 employees, they are now producing about 2,225,000 tons a year.

The Penchihu field, 47 miles from Mukden on the Antung Branch of the South Manchuria Railway, while limited as to quantity, contains some very good coking coal. This is of much importance to the Japanese interests in connection with the two 150-ton iron furnaces at Penchihu, the two new 250-ton furnaces of the South Manchuria Railway at Anshan, about 190 miles north of Dairen, and the new iron plant at Pingyang on the Korean Railways in Korea. The coal, iron-ore, and limestone deposits and the iron furnaces at Penchihu are controlled by the Okura Co., of Japan, and

the present coal production is about 300,000 long tons a year.

The only other instance in which the writer was able to see data proving the quantity and quality of the coal was that of the Kaiping field, controlled by the Kailan Mining Administration, which is located on the main line of the Peking-Mukden Railway about eighty miles north-east of Tientsin. Here there is a proved amount of about 1,000,000,000 long tons of first-class coal, a considerable portion of which will coke. With about 20,000 men the present production is approximately 3,250,000 tons a year, with a production of about 100,000 tons of coke now produced by the Chinese process. It was stated by a well-informed authority that the Kailan Mining Administration contemplates improvements amounting to approximately \$10,000,000 United States Currency in the way of washing and by-products processes, these improvements to be undertaken as soon as possible after the end of the war. The greater part of the coal now exported from China proper comes from this field, and the average rail haul to Chingwantao, the principal coal-exporting port, is about 75 miles. This is the only port of North China on the Gulf of Chihli that is free from ice during the long winters of this section, except Dairen, which is under Japanese control.

The next largest producing mines are the Pinghsiang collieries of the Han-Yeh-ping Iron and Coal Co., in Kiangsi about 260 miles South-west of Hankow. The annual production is about 1,000,000

^{*}Jap<mark>anese</mark> †British interests

tons, and all the fuel and coke for the Han-Yeh-Ping Iron Works at Hanyang, near Hankow, come from these mines.

There is no doubt of the fact that extensive and valuable fuel deposits occur in many parts of China, particularly in Chihli, Shansi, Honan, and Kiangsi, but so far as could be learned none of the fields other than those mentioned have been conclusively proved up as to quantity and quality.

The best statement of the recent production situation was published in the Far Eastern Review for October, 1917. The total present coal production of China from all classes of mines is about 18,000,000 tons of which about 8,000,000 tons come from the larger mines where more or less modern methods prevail and which are, in the main, under foreign control or administration. According to figures collected by the Geological Survey of China for the year 1915, the most recent year for which figures are available, the output of the principal mines was as follows:

Draduction

Name of Mining Enterprise	Location	Province	Nationality	in long tons
Kailan Mining Administration	The select Lining	Chibli	Sino-British	2.071.702
Administration	Tangshan Kaiping.	Cililiii	Chinese	027 462
Pinghsiang Colliery	Pinghsiang	Kiangsi	. Chinese	927,403
Peking Syndicate	Chaotso	Honan	.British	400,075
Lincheng Coal Mining Administration	Lincheng	Chihli	. Sino-Belgian	259,703
Chunghsing Coal Mining Administration	Yishien	Shantung	. Chinese	244,825
Tsingching Mining Administration	Tsingching	Chihli	.Sino-German	179,154
Paoching Co	Yangchuan	Shansi	.Chinese	131,396
Liuhokou Coal Mining Co	Linhokon	Honan	.Chinese	91,822
Tungshing Co	Mentowkow	Chihli	. Sino-British	80,000
	Subtotal			5,367,030
Fushun Colliery	Fushun & Yentai	Manchuria.	.Japanese	2,034,856
Penchihu	Penchihu	Manchuria.	Japanese	275.777
	Total			7,677,663

In addition to the above, the Japanese military administration mined 259,611 tons in 1915 and 443,368 tons in 1916 from the mines along the Shantung Railway, and it was expected by the Japanese authorities at Tsingtau that this amount would be increased in 1917 and again in 1918. In the above-mentioned article the rather surprising statement was made that even now China is importing 1,000,000 to 1,600,000 tons and that in normal times there would be an excess of imports over exports. Even with the present railways, if adequate equipment and arrangements were provided, there is every reason to think that China should become an exporter of coal instead of an importer. It would appear that many of the developments have not had the possible measure of success because the proving was insufficient to determine the best scheme of development. This applies particularly to the matter of drainage, which has been the cause of trouble in many of the operations.

It is reasonably certain that China has important iron-ore deposits, but the obtaining of definite information was found to be very difficult. At present the total pig-iron production of China, aside from Japanese production in Manchuria, is about 300,000 tons. One-half of this is the output of the Han-Yeh-Ping Co., at Hankow; the remainder, produced by scattered native plants, is nearly all consumed locally.

The Han-Yeh-Ping works consist of two 100-ton and two 250 ton furnaces. In addition, there are in course of erection two 400-ton furnaces near Hwangchow, about 70 miles below Hankow, on the Yangtze River. These last furnaces are on the river at the point where the ore is brought from the Tayeh mines by means of a 2-foot gauge railway. At present about 250 tons a day are converted into steel and iron products, and all the rest of the pig iron goes to the Japanese. This plant has the only rail mill in China, the maximum capacity of which is 120 tons a day. It is understood that there is a Japanese loan to the Han-Yeh-Ping Co. amounting to \$12,000,000 (gold), the principal and interest of which is to be paid in 40 years in iron ore and pig iron. This loan arrangement for the pig iron is at the price of \$21 (gold) per ton of 2,240 pounds for the 40-year period. It is estimated that the present production cost is \$18(gold) per ton. The loan agreement also provides that 2 tons of ore go to Japan for every one that is smelted by the Han-Yeh-Ping Co., and the minimum amount going to Japan is estimated to be 1,000,000 tons a year.

The two 150-ton Penchihu furnaces of the Okura Co. (Japanese) are now producing about 70,000 tons a year, and the new Anshan plant of the South Manchuria Railway is expected to have the first 250-ton furnace completed and in blast before the end of 1918 and the second 250-ton furnace before the end of 1919. The production from both these plants, as well as that from the new Pingyang plant, in Korea, which may use both fuel and ore from Penchihu, is controlled for Japanese consumption. As soon as the work can be carried out, it is planned to install a complete steel plant at Anshan, particularly for the production of plates for shipbuilding, of which Japan is in such urgent need and anxious to have its own supply. In any event, all the production that can reasonably be expected in the next few years will fall short of taking care of the combined needs of China and Japan, even when one includes all the possible production in Japan proper.

Other Metals

China is said to produce in commercial quantities 26 different minerals, of which antimony ranks first in value. As with the coal and iron resources, there is great and urgent need for scientific investigation of these mineral deposits, so that they can be properly and successfully developed. The transportation of minerals other than coal and iron is at present of no considerable volume and is not likely to influence materially the building of new lines of tailway; rather, the building of new lines will influence the development of certain of these mineral resources, which in some cases is now much handicapped on account of slow or expensive transportation.*

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^{*}From Far Eastern Markets for Railway Materials, Equipment, and Supplies p. 25

FOREIGNERS IN CHINA

Tariffs

China is one of the very few countries where, so far as import duties are concerned, goods from all sources are treated on the same basis. There are no preferential duties. There is supposed to be a uniform tax of 5 per cent on all imports, but in many cases there are specific duties that amount to less than 5 per cent ad valorem. A commission has recently prepared a revision of the Chinese customs tariff, with the object of making the specific duties more nearly

equivalent to 5 per cent ad valorem

The above statements should not be understood as indicating that there are no preferential conditions in the import markets of China, as this would be far from the facts of the situation. To the interests controlling shipping, terminal, godown, (warehouse), and other transportation tacilities, there are very substantial advantages. In China, moreover, there are a number of very unusual features in this connection; for example, China is one of the few large nations, if not the only one, that permits other nations to handle coastal shipping and, more particularly, shipping on inland waters. The control of this coastal and inland-waters shipping and the facilities that go with it constitutes, to say the least, a very great advantage to the trade of the interests associated therewith.

Treaty Ports

When a port or trade center is thrown open by treaty or proclamation to foreign trade and residence, it is known as a "treaty port" or "open port." This may be a seaport in the ordinary sense of the word or it may be an inland trade center many miles from the seacoast. The first five treaty ports were opened by the treaty of Nanking in 1842; they were Shanghai, Canton, Amoy, Foochow and Ningpo. Since then, the number has been increased until there are now about 80, covering the greater part of the country, particularly along the seacoast and the Yangtze Valley. The most important from the standpoint of markets for transportation materials and equipment are probably Shanghai, Tientsin, Hankow, Dairen, (Japanese leased territory) and Canton. The British leased territory of Hongkong, of course is a very important business center and a reshipping port for all parts of South China, French Indo-China, and the Philippine Islands.

Peking is also an important business center, but while there are a great many foreign residents and business concerns outside the Legation Quarter, it is not a treaty port.

Concessions and Settlements

Concessions and settlements are described by Dr. Tyau as follows: (1) "A concession or piece of ground conveyed by deed of grant in perpetuity to a Jessee State for a residence of its nationals, the same to be administered by it, saving the sovereign rights of the Emperor of China," and (2) "a settlement, or site selected for the residence of all foreigners, within which they may organize themselves into a municipality for certain purposes and be governed by their elected representatives."

Outside of its participation in the administration of the municipality of Shanghai and the Legation Quarter of Peking, the United States has no concessions or foreign settlements in China.

Consular jurisdiction, extraterritoriality, concessions and foreign settlements in treaty ports, railway area concessions, railway treaty loans, and a number of other matters make China a rather unusual place in which to live and do business. Dr. V.K. Wellington Koo's "Status of Aliens in China" and Dr. M. Z. Tyau's "Treaty Obligations Between China and Other States" are both interesting reading to students of this subject and form very handy reference works for foreigners residing and doing business in China. It is probably true that these publications are written from the Chinese viewpoint on many of the points in controversy, but they are certainly reliable as regards information and, in addition, are good examples of the feeling of many of the educated Chinese concerning their present position and condition.

Trading Centres.

The order of importance of the several trade centers from the standpoint of imports, exports, and shipping is probably as follows: Shanghai, Hongkong, Hankow, Tientsin and Canton. Dairen, of course is a very important port, but the Japanese "sphere of influence" in all of South Manchuria puts this trade center in a class by itself. The same remarks apply to Tsingtau. Both these

ports have unusually good harbor facilities.

It should be remembered that Peking is the political center of China, and particularly that this is the headquarters of the Ministry of Communications, the branch of the Chinese Government in control of the railways and the postal, electrical, and shipping departments. It can fairly be said that there is a growing tendency to control purchases for the various lines of the Government railways through the Ministry of Communications, and it is quite probable that in time all general contracts for materials and equipment for these lines will be handled from Peking.

Shanghai, at present, is the largest importing and exporting center, but Hankow may in time justify its title of the "Chicago of China." on account of its growing inportance as an exporting center, and, particularly its proximity to the source of supply of many of the

exported products.

Industrial Centers.

At present the industrial centers are, in general, largely the same as the trade centers, but a forecast of future development is far beyond the scope of the writer's investigation. It seems natural to conclude, however, that this development will follow past precedents and that localities having the natural advantages of ample labor, fuel, and shipping materials (such as the neighborhood of the port of Chinwangtao) will see important developments in the future. Hankow, no doubt, will become one of the very important points, although this place will be somewhat handicapped by the fact that the Hupeh man is not nearly so robust and capable of standing hard work as the laborers from some other parts of China. Pukow, on the Yangtze River, is suggested as one of the points having considerable advantage from the standpoint of railway and shipping facilities.*

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^{*}From Far Eastern Markets for Railway Materials, Equipment & Supplies Page, 30-32.

Spheres of Influence or Interest.

Germany first claimed a sphere of influence or interest over the Province of Shantung, and later other Powers, apparently out of a desire to maintain the balance of power in the Far East, advanced similar claims in regard to other parts of the territory of China.

The claims of foreign Powers for spheres of influence or interest in China are either based upon agreements between themselves to which China is not a party, such as the Agreement of September 2, 1898, relating to railway construction, concluded between British and German banking groups and sanctioned by their respective Governments, and the Anglo-Russian Convention of April 28, 1899, concerning their respective railway interests in China; or based upon treaties or agreements made with China under circumstances precluding the free exercise of her will, such as the so-called non-alienation agreements made during the period known as that of the Battle for Concessions, the Convention with Germany for the lease of Kiaochow of March 6, 1898, and the Treaties and Notes of May 25, 1915, made with Japan in consequence of the latter's twenty-one demands on China.

The sphere of influence is conceived to serve the interests of none but those of the Power in whose favour the claim is advanced. It looks upon a particular province or provinces of China as a preserve for exclusive exploitation by its own citizens or subjects without regard to the economic needs of the Chinese people. It restricts the natural flow of surplus capital, denies the freedom of selection in the purchase of materials and in the employment of technical experts, and seeks to check the operation of the principle of supply and demand. There have been several instances of one nation or another who was unable itself to supply the necessary capital or the proper men for a particular enterprise in a region it claims for its sphere of influence or interest and yet who refused to allow the enterprise either to be financed or carried out by other nations who could supply both the money and the men,

Shanghai International Settlement

Chinese citizens resident in the International Settlement at Shanghai are under the jurisdiction of the Shanghai Mixed Court, established in 1864. Cases in this court are heard by a Chinese magistrate and a foreign assessor who acts as the deputy of his consulgeneral. The consulates at present having regular assessors are the American, British, Italian, and Japanese. Assessors from other consulates sit only in cases that concern the interests of their own nationals. Chinese law, modified to an extent by foreign procedure, is the law of the court; and its language is Chinese. Foreigners of such nations as have not acquired extraterritorial privileges by treaty and are not represented by consuls also come under the jurisdiction of the Mixed Court; at the present time this provision also includes German and Austrian subjects, whose consular officers have been withdrawn from China. The French Concession has its own Mixed Court on the same lines, the assessor being the deputy of the French consul general.

A Court of Consuls, established in 1870, enables the public to sue the municipal council of the International Settlement.

In local affairs, the International Settlement of Shanghai is governed by the municipal council, which consists of nine members of various nationalities elected annually by the ratepayers. These members are chosen from among the most prominent business men of Shanghai and give their services free. Ratepayers are householders who pay taxes on an assessed rental value of at least 500 tacls, or are owners of land to the value of 500 tacls.

The French Concession is governed by a council of its own consisting of eight members, of which four are French and the four others are of different nationalities. Their resolutions are subject to the sanction of the French consul general. Four members retire annually and new members are elected by all owners of land or occupants of houses paying a rental of 1,000 francs per annum, or residents with an annual income of 4,000 francs.

Meetings of ratepayers of the International Settlement are held annually in March, at which time budgets for the coming year are voted upon, the report of the previous year passed upon, and the incoming council instructed as to the policy to be pursued. No important measure can be undertaken without reference to a meeting of ratepayers, any 25 of whom can call a special meeting and whose decisions are of equal validity with the decisions reached at the regular annual meetings. The cosmopolitan system of government has worked, in general, very satisfactorily during the past. The international municipal council is divided into departments, as follows: Public works; police; fire; health; educational; electrical; and financial.

The French Concession is managed on practically the same lines as the international municipal council, but on a much smaller scale, the French having no electrical department. Electricity for the French municipal council is furnished by a French private concern.

The Chinese outside of the French and International Settlements are governed by the Chinese authorities. *

Administration of Concessions

The consular representative of the country possessing a concession exercises superior authority in its affairs, and in a number of instances serves as ex-officio chairman of the municipal council. The councils as a rule are empowered by regulations of their respective governments to control the planning of the streets, the leasing of land and buildings, the guarding and policing of the settlements, and the educational and sanitary measures therein. Each of the settlements has its own police force. The councils impose and collect local taxes to defray maintenance charges. All construction charges and such excess of maintenance charges as cannot be met by local taxation are defayed by the government of the country concerned.

Under the provisions of the treaties with China, citizens and subjects of the treaty powers residing therein are amenable only to their own laws and courts. They are exempt

^{*} Commercial Handbook of China. P. 249.

from the enforcement of Chinese laws and the jurdisdiction of Chinese courts. This is the system of "extraterritoriality." Thus American citizens in China are not subject to any judicial control except that administered by the American consular authorities and the officers of the United States Court for China. It has been explained how, in addition to American laws, police and other regulations promulgated by the foreign municipalities, and subsequently approved by the consul general and the minister, are enforceable against Americans.

As regards judicial procedure, no American citizen can be arrested or complained against in a civil action, except by and through the action of the proper consular officer of the United States, or the proper officer of the United States Court for China. Whether an American citizen commits a criminal offense or is amenable to a civil process, even though the offense may be merely an infraction of the local municipal ordinances which he himself has a voice in enacting and which the consul and minister approved before their applihis country must have cability to him was determined, there is no officer of China, or of any other nationality in China, who has jurisdiction, except the above-named officers of the country of the accused. The only warrant or summons an American citizen is required to obey must bear the signature of the consular officer of the United States or else of the judge of the United States Court for China.

There are no limitations upon the rights of all friendly aliens to reside and transact business in the concessions. Such foreigners may lease land in any of the concessions, but as a condition precedent thereto are compelled to sign an agreement to abide by the municipal regulations and by-laws. The agreement is witnessed by the consul of the lessees' nationality.

The Chinese Government may not arrest one of its own citizens within the settlements without the authorisation of the consul concerned, and while such citizen is tried in a native court, yet a foreign assessor representing the consul may be present—usually by agreement the consul of any citizen who may have an interest in the case. The purely Chinese courts, in which no foreign assessor appears with authority of any considerable degree, are occasionally invoked in aid of foreign plaintiffs at Tientsin. But usually difficulties with Chinese are left to the friendly settlement of the consul of the plaintiff in correspondence or conference with the Chinese officials.

Peking is not an open port or place of trade, and foreigners other than members of the diplomatic body, those connected with the Chinese Government services, missionaries, and teachers in schools and colleges can not, therefore, base their right to reside outside the Legation Quarter upon any treaty stipulation. However, a number of foreigners other than the classes enumerated above, through sufferance and without any restrictions, reside and carry on trade there. The question of setting apart an area for foreign residence and business was considered by the Chinese Government in 1912. Peking has about twice the area of Tientsin

and an estimated population of 600,000. There are 425 Americans residing in Peking, the great majority of whom are missionaries engaged in evangelical, educational, and medical work. Also many Americans there are employed as instructors in native schools and colleges, while others are engaged in hospital work.*

The American Missionary in China;

With the opening up of international intercourse there has developed on the part of the United States an altruistic attitude towards China that is very significant. This attitude of friendly helpfulness towards China began when on February 25th, 1830, two American missionaries, representing two American missionary societies, landed in Canton. At that time foreigners had only an uncertain foothold in China; now they are found everywhere therein. These pioneers of American altruism in China came expecting to do one kind of work-the evangelistic, though the Rev. E. C. Bridgeman, one of the two, did considerable literary work and helped to negotiate the American treaty with China. In the course of 86 years the two missionaries have increased to over 2,858 representing about 64 American missionary societies and institutions. The uncertain foothold in one province has changed to a participation in work in all provinces. American missionary forces being, however, somewhat weaker in northwest and southwest China than in other parts, having only one station each in Kweichow and Yunnan. Americans are already working in Thibet.

At present American missionary forces in China are a little less than half of the entire missionary body; included therein are 231 American medical workers, -- doctors and nurses, Open doors in China and opportunities for missionary responsibility have increased together, with the result that every possible type of work that man may carry on for the good of his fellowman is now being undertaken in some measure by American missionaries; they now appeal to and influence every phase of Chinese life and every class of Chinese citizen. Not infrequently their advice has been asked and given in important political crises. The total amount of money invested by Americans in philanthropic and religious work in China has not yet been accurately computed. Some idea, however, of the annual gift of Americans to mission work in China can be gathered by putting together the funds sent to China by the two Presbyterian Missions, Northern and Southern; the two Methodist Missions, Northern and Southern; the two Baptist Missions, Northern and Southern; the American Church Mission, the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, the American Bible Society, the China Medical Board (in 1916, exclusive of home administration, \$372,783,89), and a large number of smaller gifts, which aggregated approximately for the most recent fiscal year, \$3,572,780.

^{*}Commercial Handbook of China' P. 320

[†]Taken from a report by Dr. F. Rawlinson, Editor, Chinese Recorder, shortly to appear in Commercial Handbook of China, Vol. II

Two years ago the eight leading American missionary societies were as follows, in the order of the size of the foreign staff. It is probably the same now.

1. American Presbyterian Mission, North.

2. Methodist Episcopal Mission, North.

3. American Baptist Foreign Missionary Society.

4. American Church Mission

5. Young Men's Christian Associations

6. Southern Baptist Convention.

7. American Board of Commissioners for Foregn Missions.

8. American Presbyterian Mission, South.

There are two organizations which are both international and interdenominational in sympathies and activities and which work for the interests of China as a whole; they are, the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association, The foreign staff of these organizations numbers about 126, of whom 85 per cent, are American. The work for men, which began in London in 1895, is carried on in fourteen provinces and 28 cities; that for women started in 1903 and is carried on in twelve provinces and 37 cities. Over half a million dollars have already been put by Americans into Association buildings in China. These two organizations are at present making an approximate annual gift to China of \$426,625. The main work of these organizations, being among the young and largely among students, is that of training coming leaders. Indeed, in general the work is a training school of large proportions and varied activ-Their influence upon students is significant, there being 67 Student Associations for young Chinese women, and 143 for men. A large part of the work is directly educational; for instance, there are now over ten hundred and fifty students in the various educational departments of the Shanghai Men's Association, which therefore has the largest enrolment of any one single institution under Western auspices in China. This Association has also the second largest Boys' Branch in the world.

Last but not least, mention must be made of the American Bible Society in China. This Society had, up to 1915, (its 83rd year of services), published the Bible for use in China, in whole or in part, in seventeen of its languages and dialects, assisted in preparing two other versions of the Bible, spent for the Chinese people \$1,336,651.28 and distributed as a result thereof 20,916,061 copies of the Bible and portions.

In the practical helpfulness shown in medical work, while not overlooking the large amount of quiet foundation work done by others Americans have played a special part; their 310 medical workers now in China represent a large majority of American missionary societies and are about one-half of the medical missionary staff in China. They conduct 204 hospitals and 129 dispensaries. In 1917 they treated 1,016,746 patients — an army of friends won through friend-liness. In many ways they are doing much to improve living conditions and create new ideals of sanitation and hygiene; in this connection the Young Men's Christian Association, through its Scientific Department and the work of Dr. Peter, has taken a leading part. Through this contingent of medical workers America's helping hand

brings hope to those who were hopeless, relief to those enthralled by serious and hideous blights, and care to those uncared for.

All of the large American missionary societies are represented in the educational work carried on in China by Americans. About sixty per cent. of all the students in mission schools are in institutions supported by Americans. In 1916 they were actually training 112,286 pupils, of whom two-thirds were boys. They maintain for this purpose over 4,000 schools, which include fourteen institutions ranked as colleges, in addition to ten union institutions, of which four rank as universities. Over and above this, Americans participate in about ten union institutions. American missionary educational work is strongest in East China, North China, and South China, in the order named. The actual value of these educational plants and the total amount of money contributed for their support has never yet been actually computed. Some idea, however can be obtained from the fact that about two years ago the aggregate value of the plants and equipment of only five of the more than 4,000 institutions under auspices namely, the Canton Christian College, the Shanghai Baptist College, St. John's University, Nanking University, and Shantung Christian University, was considerably over a million and a half dollars, these institutions were also receiving approximately \$100,000 a year as subsidy. Coupled with that part of the Boxer Indemnity remitted in 1908 by the United States, the sum total in staff and funds put into educational work in China is a factor in the promotion of civilization that can hardly be over-estimated; it stands out among the gifts made by men primarily for the good of their fellows; it signifies a sincere attempt to give the Chinese a chance.

Apart from the regular work of mission schools carried on American missionary societies, American universities have established practical fraternal relationships with Chinese youth. Only brief mention can be made of these, but that is significant. Yale is supporting an educational work at Changsha, Hunan, formerly noted for its anti-foreign spirit; its medical school alone is costing \$75,000 a year, and it has a hospital which cost \$175,000 to build. Harvard for a time conducted a medical work in Shanghai, which is now being merged in the larger plans of the China Medical Board. Pennsylvania is assisting in a Medical Department in St. John's University, Shanghai. Last year Columbia supported a man at the Shanghai Baptist College. Teachers College is responsible for a chair in Canton Christian College; to raise funds for this there was given in 1917 a huge pageant. It is interesting to note that this one institution is assisted directly by six colleges in the United States. Oberlin is practically interested in schools in Shensi and is represented by Dr. H.H. K'ung, a lineal descendant of Confucius. Princeton has taken a big part in the life of Peking through the Young Men's Christian Association which its alumni established Smith College is taking a direct interest in Ginling College for women, in Nanking. Brown University is assisting in the work of one of its graduates at the Shanghai Baptist College, and is planning to take a larger share in promoting his work along sociological lines. These and other instances are indicative of the live interest of American students in the needs of Chinese youth and of a determination to help equalize the opportunities of China's future leaders for an adequate preparation for their task. They are trying to teach them insight, foresight and the right use of hindsight.

American Chambers of Commerce in China

The American Chamber of Commerce in China is distinctly a development of the war and a result of the increased interest in China and the activities of Americans in China. There are now regularly organized chambers at the following points: Shanghai, Tientsin, Peking, Hankow, Harbin and Changsha. Another chamber at Vladivostok, Siberia is in process of organization. The oldest chambers are at Tientsin and Shanghai, the leading ports of North China. Both were organized soon after the outbreak of the war when American merchants in China found themselves at the mercy of the various war regulations and restrictions of the belligerent countries. The fellowship and community of interest and the value of presenting a united front in dealing with the various problems soon demonstrated the value of the Chambers and their growth has been in accordance with the phenomenal development of American trade and interest in this part of the world in the last few years. All of the chambers maintain a high standard in their membership and have done a great deal to enhance the prestige and standing of American business in China. They have been able to do a great deal improving trade standards and practices from the American standpoint and have assisted materially in the campaign to bring American trade in the Orient into American hands and control. Shanghai and Tientsin chambers have permanent headquarters and meeting places and the Shanghai chamber has a permanent secretary who devotes his entire time to the organization.

It is understood that American chambers are soon to be organized in Hongkong and Canton, and at several other points in China and within the coming year an affort is to be made to consolidate them through some form of cooperation that will unify American commercial and financial interests throughout China.*

A New American School in Shanghait

The number of Americans in China is increasing rapidly: Formerly they were predominantly missionaries, who came for life, reared families, educated their children as best they could in their homes or sent them to America for long periods. These first saw the need of some satisfactory schooling in China and set about making it possible. Private instructors and small group schools are now being succeeded by larger, fully organized American schools on modern lines.

The oldest and largest of these was opened in Shanghai in September 1912 in rented quarters, and has been maintained by fees and by gradually increasing subsidies from (at the present time) seven American missionary societies, with a total expenditure this year for current expenses of over \$70,000 Mexican.

^{*}Millard's Review, Vol XIII No. 3 *By C. L. Boynton, Business Manager.

With the growth in numbers and permanence of the residential business and consular element in Shanghai, there has been a corresponding increase in the number of Americans with families to be educated here. Incomplete figures carefully compiled from private records of the birth of American children in China show this clearly:

Born 1900-1904, 111; 1905-1909, 175; 1910-14, 334; 1915-19, 462

Of these 1082 children, the parents of over 500 live in the provinces of Anhwei, Chekiang, Fukien, and Kiangsu, within a radius of 300 miles of Shanghai, and the parents of over 200 in Shanghai. This is reflected in the growth of attendance at the American School:

1913-86 1914-93 1915-98 1916-132 1917-142 1918-160

1920-202 (of whom 44 were of non-missionary parentage.

109 were boys, and 81 were boarding pupils, from outside Shanghai.)

The educational problem has become acute, and temporary quarters in an unsuitable locality no longer meet the need. In July 1919 a campaiga was launched in Shanghai to provide from local sources funds for the purchase of an adequate site, suitably located, at a cost of Taels 150,000, on which might be erected modern school buildings, dormitories and teachers' residences, with funds provided by the cooperating missionary societies and business interests in America. The local campaign has yielded Taels 105,000 (Tls. 80,000 paid in) and the site has been selected. The American campaign has secured about half of Gold \$300,000 sought for buildings. Architects are at work on the plans, and the erection of buildings should begin early in 1921 for occupancy the following year.

Until adequate endowment or government support can be enlisted, it will be necessary to continue the present plan of fairly large fees and Mission Board subsidies. These subsidies are necessarily limited in amount. It is hoped that endowment can be secured, although there is little precedent for the endowment of schools of high school and grammar grade, which are almost universally maintained by State and City governments. The peculiar conditions in the Far East suggest that the greatest hope for permanent support lies in legislation by the United States Government which will help to provide for the education of the children of its representatives abroad in business, consular and diplomatic and missionary service.

The control of the School has been broadened by the change of its Constitution to provide for equal representation of business and missionary interests, the former chosen at present by the two leading American organizations in Shanghai, the latter by the election of one representative by each participating mission. A more general and responsible community participation may eventually open the way for the democratic choice of a school board of a semi-public-school character.

The present equipment consists of eight rented residences outside the Northern district and the School is administered by a teaching, medical and administrative staff of over twenty Americans, graduates of American normal schools and colleges providing a grade

of instruction which permits entry on even terms in American schools The enrollment by grades is as follows:at home.

First	10	Second	17	Third 16	Fourth	14
Fifth	17	Sixth	13	Seventh 28	Eighth	21
Vi.th	25	Tenth	15	Eleventh 15	Twelfth	11
Total	grades:	136		High School:	66.	

The smaller enrolment in lower grades is due to the fact that children under ten years of age are rarely accepted as boarding sindenis.

AMERICAN OFFICIALS IN CHINA

The following are the American diplomatic, consular and Judicial officials in China:

Charles R. Crane, American Minister, Peking.

Charles D. Tenney, Councillor of Legation, Peking.

Col. W. S. Drysdale, Military Attache, Peking.

A. B. Ruddock, First Secretary, American Legation, Peking.

Willys R. Peck, Chinese Secretary, American Legation, Peking.

C. J. Spiker, Assistant Chinese Secretary, American Legation, Peking. Julean Arnold, Commercial Attache, Peking.

C. C. Batchelder, Acting Commercial Attache, Peking.

Lynn W. Meekins, U. S. Trade Commissioner, Peking.

C. S. Lobingier, Judge, U. S. Court for China, Shanghai.

C. P. Holcomb, U. S. District Attorney, Shanghai.

Chas. C. Eberhardt, Consul-General at Large, Peking.

E. S. Cunningham, Consul-General, Shanghai.

M. F. Perkins, Administrative Consul, Shanghai.

Algar E. Carleton, Consul, Amoy.

H. Gilbert King, Vice-Consul in Charge, Antung. Leo A. Bergholz, Consul-General, Canton.

Carl D. Meinhardt, Consul, Changsha.

Stuart K. Lupton, Consul, Chefoo,

Paul R. Josselyn, Consul, Chungking.

Ernest B. Price, Consul, Foochow.

Max D. Kirjassoff, Consul, Dairen.

P. S. Heintzleman, Consul-General, Hankow,

Douglas Jenkins, Consul, Harbin.

Leighton Hope, Vice-Consul in Charge, Hongkong.

Albert W. Pontius, Consul-General, Mukden,

John K. Davis, Consul, Nanking.

Myrl S. Myers Consul, Swatow.

Stuart J. Fuller, Consul-General, Tientsin.

Clarence E. Gauss, Consul, Tsinanfu. John K. Caldwell, Consul, Valdivostok, Russia.

Norwood F. Allman, Vice Consul in Charge Tsingtao*

^{*} Millard's Review Vol. XIII No. 3.

AMERICAN ORGANIZATIONS IN SHANGHAL

American Association of China,
American Chamber of Commerce of China.
American Far Eastern Bar Association.
American Woman's Club.
American College Club. †
American University Club.
American Relief Society.
American Club.
American Amateur Baseball Club.
American Company, S. V. C. §
Advertising Club of China
Columbia Country Club.
The Rotary Club.
The American Legion (Frederick Ward Post.)
The Misouri Society.

POLITICAL DOCUMENTS The Open Door Declaration

Mr. Hay, American Secretary of State, to Mr. White

American Ambassador to Germany.

Department of Stat

Department of State,, Washington, September 6, 1899.

Sir: At the time when the Government of the United States was informed by that of Germany that it had leased from His Majesty the Emperor of China the port of Kiaochou and the adjacent territory in the province of Shantung, assurances were given to the Ambassador of the United States at Berlin by the Imperial German Minister for Foreign Affairs that the rights and privileges insured by treaties with China to citizens of the United States would not thereby suffer or be in anywise impaired within the area over which Germany had thus obtained control.

More recently, however, the British Government recognized by a formal agreement with Germany the exclusive right of the latter country to enjoy in said leased area and the contiguous "sphere of influence or interest" certain privileges, more especially those relating to railroads and mining enterprises; but, as the exact nature and extent of the rights thus recognized have not been clearly defined, it is possible that serious conflicts of interests may at any time arise, not only between British and German subjects within said area, but that the interests of our citizens may also be jeopardized thereby.

Earnestly desirous to remove any cause of irritation and to insure at the same time to the commerce of all nations in China the undoubted benefits which should accrue from a formal recognition by the various Powers claiming "spheres of interest" that they shall enjoy perfect equality

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^{*} Similar organizations exist in other cities in China where there we large American communities.

[†] Women's Club.

[&]amp; Military.

of treatment for their commerce and navigation within such "spheres," the Government of the United States would be pleased to see His German Majesty's Government give formal assurances, and lend its co-operation in securing like assurances from the other interested Powers, that each within its respective sphere of whatever influence—

First. Will in no way interfere with any treaty port or any vested interest within any so-called "sphere of interest" or leased territory it may have in China.

Second. That the Chinese treaty tariff of the time being shall apply to all merchandise landed or shipped to all such ports as are within said "sphere of interest" (unless they be "free ports"), no matter to what nationality it may belong, and that duties so leviable shall be collected by the Chinese Government.

Third. That it will levy no higher harbor dues on vessels of another nationality frequenting any port in such "sphere" than shall be levied on vessels of its own nationality, and no higher railroad charges over lines built, controlled, or operated within its "sphere" on merchandise belonging to citizens or subjects of other nationalities transported through such "sphere" than shall be levied on similar merchandise belonging to its own nationals transported over equal distances.

The liberal policy pursued by His Imperial German Majesty in declaring Kiaochou a free port and in aiding the Chinese Government in the establishment there of a custom-house are so clearly in line with the proposition which this Government is anxious to see recognised that it entertains the strongest hope that Germany will give its acceptance and hearty support.

The recent Ukase of His Majesty the Emperor of Russia declaring the port of Ta-lien-wan open during the whole of the lease under which it is held from China to the merchant ships of all nations, coupled with the categorical assurances made to this Government by His Imperial Majesty's representative at this capital at the time, and since repeated to me by the present Russian Ambassador, seem to insure the support of the Emperor to the proposed measure. Our Ambassador at the Court of St. Peterburg has in consequence been instructed to submit it to the Russian Government and to request their early consideration of it. A copy of my instruction on the subject to Mr. Tower is herewith enclosed for your confidential information.

The commercial interest of Great Britain and Japan will be so clearly served by the desired declaration of intentions, and the views of the Governments of these countries as to the desirability of the adoption of measures insuring the benefits of equality of treatment of all foreign trade throughout China are so similar to those entertained by the United States, that their acceptance of the proposition herein outlined and their co-operation in advocating their adoption by the other Powers can be confidently expected. I enclose herewith copy of the instruction which I have sent to Mr. Choate on the subject.

In view of the present favorable conditions, you are instructed to submit the above considerations to His Imperial German Majesty's Minister for Foreign Affairs, and to request his early consideration of the subject.

Copy of this instruction is sent to our Ambassadors at London and at St. Petersburg for their information.

I have, etc.

JOHN HAY

(Translation)

Foreign Office,

Berlin, February 19, 1900.

Mr. Ambassador: Your Excellency informed me, in a memorandum presented on the 24th of last month, that the Government of the United States of America had received satisfactory written replies from all the Powers to which an inquiry had been addressed similar to that contained in Your Excellency's note of September 26 last, in regard to the policy of the open door in China. While referring to this, Your Excellency thereupon expressed the wish that the Imperial Government would now also give its answer in writing.

Gladly complying with this wish, I have the honor to inform Your Excellency, repeating the statements already made verbally, as follows: As recognised by the Government of the United States of America, according to Your Excellency's note referred to above the Imperial Government has, from the beginning, not only asserted, but also practically carried out to the fullest extent, in its Chinese possessions absolute equality of treatment of all nations with regard to trade, navigation, and commerce. The Imperial Government entertains no thought of departing in the future from this principle, which at once excludes any prejudicial or disadvantageous commercial treatment of the citizens of the United States of America, so long as it is not forced to do so, on account of considerations of reciprocity, by a divergence from it by other Governments. If therefore, the other Powers interested in the industrial development of the Chinese Empire are willing to recognize the same principles, this can only be desired by the Imperial Government, which in this case upon being requested will gladly be ready to participate with the United States of America and the other Powers in an agreement made upon these lines, by which the same rights are reciprocally secured.

I avail myself, etc.

BULOW

THE PROVISIONAL CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

On March 10, 1912, the National Council at Nanking adopted the following Provisional Constitution:

I. General Provisions

Article 1.—The Republic of China is established by the Chinese people.

Article 2.—The sovereignty of the Chinese Republic is vested in the whole body of the people.

Article 3. -The territory of the Chinese Republic consists of the twenty-two provinces, Inner and Outer Mongolia, Tibet and Chinghai (Kokonor).

Article 4.—The sovereignty of the Chinesé Republic is exercised by the National Council, the Provisional President, the Cabinet, and the Judiciary.

II. Citizens

Article 5.—Citizens of the Chinese Republic are all equal, and there shall be no racial, class or religious distinctions.

Article 6.—Citizens shall enjoy the following rights:

- (1) No citizen shall be arrested, imprisoned, tried or punished except in accordance with Law.
- (2) The habitation of any citizen shall not be entered or searched, except in accordance with Law.
- (3) Citizens shall enjoy the right of the security of their property and the freedom of trade.
- (4) Citizens shall have the freedom of speech, of publication, of association.
 - (5) Citizens shall have the right of the secreey of their letters.
 - (6) Citizens shall have the liberty of residence and removal.
 - (7) Citizens shall have the freedom of religion.

Article 7.—Citizens shall have the right to petition Parliament.

Article 8.—Citizens shall have the right of petitioning the executive officials.

Article 9.—Citizens shall have the right to institute proceedings before the Judiciary, and to receive trial and judgment.

Article 10.—Citizens shall have the right of suing officials in the Administrative Courts for violation of the law or of their rights.

Article 11.—Citizens shall have the right of participating in examination for official posts.

Article 12.—Citizens shall have the right to vote and of standing for election to representative assemblies.

Article 13.—Citizens shall have the duty of paying taxes according to Law.

Article 15.—The rights of citizens as provided in the present chapter shall be limited or modified by laws provided such limitation or modification shall be deemed necessary for the promotion of public welfare, for the maintenance of public order or upon other urgent necessity.

III. The National Council (Ts'an Yi-Yuan)

Article 16.—The legislative power of the Chinese Republic is exercised by the National Council.

Article 17.—The National Council shall be composed of members elected by the several districts as provided in Article 18.

Article 18.—The Provinces, Inner and Outer Mongolia, and Tibet shall each elect and depute five members to the National Council, and Chinghai (Kokonor) shall elect one member.

The electoral districts and methods of election shall be decided by the localities concerned.

During the meeting of the National Council each member shall have one vote.

Article 19:- The National Council shall have the following powers:-

- (1) To pass all laws.
- (2) To pass the budgets of the Provisional Government.
- (3) To pass measures of taxation, of currency, and of weights and measures for the whole country.
- (4) To pass measures for the incurring of public loans and to conclude agreements affecting the National Treasury.
 - (5) To give consent to matters provided in Articles 34, 35, and 40.
 - (6) To reply to inquiries from the Provisional Government.
 - (7) To receive and consider petitions of citizens.
- (8) To make suggestions to the Government on laws or other matters.
- (9) To introduce interpellation to the members of the Cabinet and to insist on their being present in the Council in making replies thereto.
- (10) To insist on Government investigation into any alleged bribery and infringement of laws by officials.
- (11) To impeach the Provisional President, if he be held to have acted as a traitor by a majority vote of three-fourths of the members present with a quorum of more than four-fifths of the total number of members.
- (12) To impeach any member of the Cabinet, if he be held to have failed to perform his official duties or to have violated the law by a majority vote of two-thirds of the members present with a quorum of over three-fourths of the total number of members.

Article 20:-- The National Council may itself convoke, conduct, and adjourn its own meetings.

Article 21:— The meeting of the National Council shall be conducted publicly, but meetings may be held in camera at the demand of any member of the Cabinet or of a majority vote.

Article 22:— Matters passed by the National Council shall be communicated to the Provisional President for promulgation and execution.

Article 23:—If the Provisional President should veto matters passed by the National Council, he shall, within ten days after he receives such resolutions, return the same with stated reasons to the Council for reconsideration. If the same matter should again be passed by a two-thirds vote of the Council, it shall be dealt with in accordance with Article 22.

Article 24:—The President of the National Council shall be elected by open ballot of the voting members, and the one who receives more than one-half of the total number of the votes cast shall be elected.

Article 25:—Members of the National Council shall not, outside the Council nail, be responsible for their opinions expressed and votes cast in the Council.

Article 26:—Members of the Council shall not be arrested without the permission of the President of the Council except for flagrant offences or during internal disturbance or foreign invasion.

Article 27:—The procedure of the National Council shall be decided by its own members.

Article 28:—The National Council shall be dissolved on the day of the convocation of the National Assembly, and its powers shall be exercised by the latter.

IV. The Provisonal President and Vice President

Article 29:—The Provisional President and Vice-President shall be elected by the National Council, by vote of two-thirds of the members present at a sitting of the Council consisting of over three-fourths of the total number of members.

Article 30:—The Provisional President represents the Provisional Government as the fountain of all executive powers and promulgates all laws.

Article 31:—The Provisional President may issue or cause to be issued orders for the execution of laws and of powers delegated to him by the law.

Article 32:—The Provisional President shall be the commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the whole of China.

Article 33:—The Provisional President shall ordain and establish the administrative system and official regulations, but he must first submit them to the National Council for its approval.

Article 34:--The Provisional President shall appoint and remove civil and military officials, but in the appointment of members of the Cabinet, Ambassadors, and Ministers, he must have the concurrence of the National Council.

Article 35:--The Provisional President shall have power with the concurrence of the National Council, to declare war and conclude treaties,

Article 36:—The Provisional President may, in accordance with law declare a state of siege.

Article 37:- The Provisional President shall, representing the whole country, receive Ambassadors and Ministers of foreign countries.

Article 38:—The Provisional President may introduce Bills into the National Council.

Article 39:—The Provisional President may confer decorations and other insignia of honour.

Article 40: -The Provisional President may declare general amnesty, grant special pardons, commute a punishment, and restore rights, but in the case of a general amnesty he must have the concurrence of the National Council.

Article 41:—In case the Provisional President is impeached by the National Council, he shall be tried by a special court consisting of nine judges elected among the justices of the supreme court of the realm.

Article 42:—If the Provisional President vacates his office from any cause, or is unable to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the provisional Vice-President shall attend to his duties.

V. Ministers of State.

Article 43:—The Premier and the heads of the Government Departments shall be called Ministers.

Article 44:—Ministers of State shall assist the Provisional President in assuming responsibilities.

Article 45:—Ministers of state shall countersign all Bills introduced by the Provisional President and all laws and orders issued by them,

Article 46:—Ministers of State and their deputies may be present and speak in the National Council.

Article 47:—If any Minister of State is impeached by the National Council, the Provisional President may remove him from office, but such removal shall be subject to the reconsideration of the National Council.

VI. Courts of Justice.

Article 48:—The Judiciary shall be composed of judges appointed by the Provisional President and the Minister of Justice. The organization of the courts and the qualification of Judges shall be determined by law.

Article 49: - The Judiciary shall try civil and criminal cases, but cases involving administrative affairs or arising from other particular causes, shall be dealt with according to special laws.

Article 50:—The trial of cases in the law courts shall be conducted publicly, but those affecting public safety and order may be held in camera.

Article 51:—Judges shall be independent and shall not be subject to the interference of higher officials.

Article 52:—Judges during their continuance in office shall not have their emoluments decreased and shall not be transferred to other offices, nor shall they be removed from office except when they are convicted of crimes, or of offences punishable according to law by removal from office.

Regulations for the punishment of judges shall be determined by law.

VII. Annex.

Article 53:—Within ten months after the promulgation of this Provisional Constitution the Provisional President shall convene a National Assembly, the organization of which and the laws for the election of whose members shall be decided by the National Council. Article 51:—The Constitution of the Republic of China shall be adopted by the National Assembly but before the promulgation of the Constitution the Provisional Constitution shall have the same force as the Constitution itself.

Article 55:—The Provisional Constitution may be amended by the assent of three fourths of the members of the National Council present at a quorum of two-thirds of the whole number; or upon the application of the Provisional President by a majority vote of threefourths at a quorum of the Council of four-fifths of the total number of its members

Article 56:—The present Provisional Constitution shall take effect on the date of its promulgation, and the fundamental articles for the organization of the Provisional Government shall cease to be effective on the same date.

Sealed by

The National Council

March 11, 1912. 1st year of the Republic of China. *

The Boxer Idemnity.

Following the protocol of 1901, as one of the terms in the final settlement of the Boxers' riot, China was to pay an indemnity of £67.500,000 to be distributed among a number of nations, payment being spread over thirty-nine years the following table shows the fixed annual charge and the distribution:—

Annual Instalment

	from 1916	from 1932	% of the
Name of Countries.	to 1931.	to 1940.	total
Name of Countries.	10 1931.	10 1940.	totai
Germany	663.033.08	989,278.89	20.01567
Austria-Hungary	29,473.92	43,976.58	0.88976
Russia	959,696.58	1,431,915.84	28.97136
United States	242,473.17	361,782.23	7.31979
France	521,753.62	788,482.80	15.75072
Great Britain	372.631.33	555.984.79	11.24901
Japan	256,121.29	382.145.92	7.73180
Italy	195.934.87	202,344.74	5.91489
Belgium	02.455.53	93.186.80	1.88541
Holland	5,757.25	8,590.10	0.17380
Spain	996.09	1,486.22	0.03007
Portugal	679.08	1,013.22	0 02050
Norway and Sweden	462.43	689.98	0.01396
Sundry	1.101.76	1,643.88	0.03326
		The same and the same and the same and	
Total	(3,312,570	14.942.522	100.00000

America, the pleader of moderation, did not suffer her sense of justice to be subordinated to political bonds. In the year 1910 her Government, acting on ite own initiative, renounced the Boxers indemnity, and, in return, the Chinese Government undertook to send a certain number of students anually to the American Universities. †

^{*} China Year Book 1919

³ The Boxer Indomnity and Education. Pages. 4 and 8.



Feng Kuo-CHANG Fourth President of China



ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE

(lst) Agreement concluded January 30th, 1920.

- Art. I. The High Contracting Parties, having mutually recognized the independence of China and Korea, declare themselves to be entirely uninfluenced by any aggressive tendencies in either country. Having in view, however, their special interests; of which those of Great Britain relate principally to China, while Japan, in addition to the interests which she possesses in China is interested in a peculiar degree politically, as well as commercially, and industrially, in Korea, the High Contracting Parties recognize that it will be admissible for either of them to take such measures as may be indispensable in order to safeguard those interests if threatened either by the aggressive action of any other Power, or by disturbances arising in China or Korea, and necessitating the intervention of either of the High Contracting Parties for the protection of the lives and property of its subject.
- Art. 2. If either Great Britain or Japan, in the defence of their respective interests as above described, should become involved in war with another Power the other High Contracting Party will maintain a strict neutrality, and use its efforts to prevent others from joining in hostilities against its Ally.
- Art. 3. If, in the above event, any other Power or Powers should join hostilities against that Ally, the other High Contracting Party will come to its assistance, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it.
- Art. 4. The High Contracting Parties agree that neither of them will, without consulting the other, enter into separate arrangement with another Power to the prejudice of the interests above described.
- Art. 5. Whenever, in the opinion of either Great Britain or Japan, the above mentioned interests are in jeopardy the two Governments will communicate with one another fully and frankly.
- Art. 6. The present Agreement shall come into effect immediately after the date of its signature, and remain in force for five years from that date. In case neither of the High Contracting Parties should have notified twelve months before the expiration of the said five years the intention of terminating it, it shall remain binding until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it. But if, when the date fixed for its expiration arrives, either ally is actually engaged in war, the Alliance shall, ipso facto, continue until peace is concluded.

Preamble.

The Governments of Japan and Great Britain, being desirous of replacing the Agreement concluded between them on the 30th January, 1902 by fresh stipulations, have agreed upon the following Articles, which have for their object:

(a).—The consolidation and maintenance of the general peace in the regions of Eastern Asia and India:

- (b).— The proservation of the common interests of all Powers in China by insuring the independence and integrity of the Chinese Empire and the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations in China:
- (c). The maintenance of the territorial rights of the High Contracting Parties in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India, and the defence of their special interests in the said regions:
- Art. I.—It is agreed that whenever in the opinion of either Japan or Great Britain, any of the rights and interests referred to in the Preamble of this Agreement are in jeopardy, the two Governments will communicate with one another fully and frankly, and will consider in common the measures which should be taken to safeguard those menaced rights or interests.
- Art. II.—If by reason of unprovoked attack or aggressive action wherever arising, on the part of any other Power or Powers, either Contracting Party should be involved in war in defence of its territorial rights or special interests mentioned in the Preamble of this Agreement, the other Contracting Farty will at once come to the assistance of the Ally and will conduct the war in common and make peace in mutual agreement with it.
- Art. III. -Japan possessing paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea. Great Britain recognizes the right of Japan to take such measures of guidance, control, and protection in Korea as she may deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance these interests, provided always that such measures are not contrary to the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all-nations.
- Art. IV.—Great Britain having special interests in all that concerns the security of the Indian frontier Japan recognizes her right to take such measures in the proximity of that frontier as she may find necessary for safeguarding her Indian possessions.
- Art. V.—The High Contracting Parties agree that neither of them will, without consulting the other, enter into separate arrangements with another Power to the prejudice of the objects described in the Preamble of this Agreement.
- Art. VI.—As regards the present war between Japan and Russia, Great Britain will continue to maintain strict neutrality unless some other Power or Powers should join in hostilities against Japan, in which case Great Britain will come to the assistance of Japan, and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with Japan.
- Art. VII. -The conditions under which armed assistance shall be afforded by either Power to the other in the circumstances mentioned in the present Agreement, and the means by which such assistance is to be made available, will be arranged by the Naval and Military authorities of the Contracting Parties who will from time to time consult one another fully and freely upon all questions of mutual interest.

Art. VIII.—The present Agreement shall, subject to the provisions of Article VI. come into effect immediately after the date of its signatures and remain in force for ten years from that date

In case neither of the High Contracting Parties should have notified twelve months before the expiration of the said ten years the intention of terminating it, it shall remain binding until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it. But if, when the date fixed for its expiration arrives, either Ally is actually engaged in war, the Alliance shall ipso facto continue until peace is concluded:

In faith whereof the Undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this Agreement and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate at London, the 12th day of August, 1905 (Seal) Signed, Tadasu Hayashi,

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan at the Court of St. James.

(Seal) Signed, Lansdowne,

His Britannic Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

The Japanese Government being well satisfied that the Anglo-Japanese Alliance will render in future, as in the past, conspicuous service in the cause of general peace and tranquility, have considered it necessary at the proper moment to extend the terms of the Alliance, in order to assure lasting security in the East. They have found it desirable at the same time to introduce into the existing Agreement of 1905 suitable modifications, which will respond to the important changes brought about in the situation since the conclusion of that Agreement, and which will also facilitate a more perfect consummation of the peaceful purpose of the Alliance. Having regard to the foregoing consideration, the Japanese Government recently entered into an exchange of views with Great Britain, and the two Governments having come to a complete understanding, a revised Agreement has now been concluded between Japan and Great Britain.

Preamble.

The Government of Japan and the Government of Great Britain having in view the important changes which have taken place in the situation since the conclusion of the Anglo-Japanese Agreement of the 12th August 1902, and believing that the revision of that Agreement responding to such changes would contribute to general stability and repose, have agreed upon the following stipulations to replace the Agreement, above mentioned such stipulations having the same object as the said Agreement, namely:—

A.—The consolidation and maintenance of the general peace in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India.

B.—The preservation of the common interests of all Powers in China by insuring the independence and integrity of the Chinese Empire and the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations in China.

C. -The againtenance of the territorial rights of the High Contracting Parties in the regions of Eastern Asia and of India and

the defence of their special interests in the said regions:-

Art. I. It is agreed that whenever, in the opinion of either Japan or Great Britain, any of the rights and interests referred to in the Preamble of this Agreement are in jeopardy, the two Governments will communicate with one another fully and frankly and will consider in common the measures which should be taken to safeguard these menaced rights and interests.

- Art. II. If by reason of an unprovoked attack or aggressive action, whenever arising, on the part of any other Power or Powers, either of the High Contracting Parties should be involved in war in defence of the territorial rights or special interests mentioned in the preamble of this Agreement, the other High Contracting Party will at once come to the assistance of its Ally and will conduct the war in common, and make peace in mutual agreement with it.
- Art. 111. The High Contracting Parties agree that neither of them will, without consulting the other, enter into separate arrangement with another Power to the prejudice of the objects described in the preamble of this Agreement.
- Art. IV. Should either of the High Contracting Parties conclude a treaty of general arbitration with a third Power, it is agreed that nothing in this Agreement shall impose upon such Contracting Party an obligation to go to war with the Power with whom such arbitration treaty is in force.
- Art. V. The conditions under which armed assistance shall be afforded by either Power to the other in circumstances entered into in the present Agreement, and the means by which such assistance is to be made available, will be arranged by the Naval and Military authorities of the High Contracting Parties, who will from time to time consult with one another fully and frankly upon all questions of mutual interests.
- Art. VI. The present Agreement shall come into effect immediately after the date of its signature, and remain in force for ten years from that date. In case either of the High Contracting parties should have notified twelve months before the expiration of the said ten years its intention of termination, it shall remain binding until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the High Contracting Parties shall have denounced it. But if when the date fixed for its expiration arrives either Ally is actually engaged in war, the Alliance shall, ipso facto, continue until peace is concluded.

In faith whereof the Undersigned, duly authorized by their respective Covernments, have signed this Agreement and have affixed their seals thereof.

Done in duplicate at London, the 13th day of July, 1911. T. Kato, the Ambassador of His Majesty the Emperor of Japan at the Court of St. James. Edward Grey, H. B. M's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.*

^{*}The Japan Year Book 1919-1920. Fage 459-462.

ROOT = TAKAHIRA AGREEMENT

"Japanese Embassy,
"Washington, Nov. 30, 1908.

"Sir:

"The exchange of views between us, which has taken place at the several interviews which I have recently had the honor of holding with you, has shown that Japan and the United States holding important outlying insular possessions in the region of the Pacific Ocean, the Governments of the two countries are animated by a common aim, policy and intention in that region.

"Believing that a frank avowal of that aim, policy and intention would not only tend to strengthen the relations of friendship and good neighbourhood which have immemorially existed between Japan and the United States, but would materially contribute to the preservation of the general peace, the Imperial Government have authorised me to present to you an outline of their understanding of that common aim, policy and intention:

- I. It is the wish of the two Governments to encourage the free and peaceful development of their commerce on the Pacific Ocean;
- 2. The policy of both Governments, uninfluenced by any aggressive tendencies, is directed to the maintenance of the existing status quo in the region above mentioned and to the defence of the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry in China;
- 3. They are accordingly firmly resolved reciprocally to respect the territorial possessions belonging to each other in said region:
- 4. They also determined to preserve the common interests of all Powers in China, by supporting, by all pacific means at their disposal, the independence and integrity of China and the principle of equal opportunity for commerce and industry of all nations in that Empire.

"Should any event occur threatening the status quo, as above described or the principle of equal opportunity as above defined, it remains for the two Governments to communicate with each other, in order to arrive at an understanding as to what measures they may consider it useful to take.

"If the foregoing outline accords with the view of the Government of the United States, I shall be gratified to receive your confirmation.

"I take, etc., etc.,
"K. Takahira."

Note from the Secretary of State to the Japanese Ambassador.

"Department of State,

"Washington, November 30, 1908.

"Excellency:-

"I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your Note of to-day, setting forth the result of the exchange of views between us in our recent interviews, defining the understanding of the two Governments in regard to their policy in the region of the Pacific Ocean.

It is a pleasure to inform you that this expression of mutual understanding is welcome to the United States as appropriate to the happy relations of the two countries and the occasion for a concise, mutual affirmation of that accordant policy respecting the Far East, which the two Governments have so frequently declared in the past.

"I am happy to be able to confirm to Your Excellency, on behalf of the United States the declaration of the two Governments embodied in the following words:"

Here follows a declaration identical to that given by Baron Takahira under the signature of Mr. Elihu Root.*

Lansing-Ishii Agreement

On Nov. 8 there were made public simultaneously at Tokyo and Washington diplomatic documents in the form of Notes exchanged between Viscount Ishii, Japan's Special Envoy, and Robert Lansing, American Secretary of State, with regard to China. Secretary Lansing's Note is reprinted below, that of Viscount Ishii being merely a confirmation.

FROM THE SECRETARY OF STATE TO VISCOUNT ISHII.

"Washington, November, 2, 1917."

Excellency:-

"I have the honor to communicate herein my understanding of the agreement reached by us in our recent conversations touching the questions of mutual interest to our Governments relating to the Republic of China.

"In order to silence mischievous reports that have from time to time been circulated, it is believed by us that a public announcement once more of the desires and intentions shared by our two Governments with regard to China is advisable.

"The Governments of the United States and Japan recognize that territorial propinquity creates special relations between countries, and consequently the Government of the United States recognizes that Japan has special interests in China particularly in the part to which her possessions are contiguous.

"The territorial sovereignty of China, nevertheless, remains unimpaired and the Government of the United States has every confidence in the repeated assurances of the Imperial Japanese Government that while geographical position gives Japan such special interests they have no desire to discriminate against the trade of other nations or to disregard the commercial rights heretofore granted by China in treaties with other Powers.

"The Governments of the United States and Japan deny that they have any purpose to infringe in any way the independence or territorial integrity of China and they declare furthermore that they always adhere to the principle of the so called "open door" or equal opportunity for commerce and industry in China.

^{*}Japan Year Book 1919-20. Page 463-464.

"Moreover, they mutually declare that they are opposed to the acquisition by any Government of any special rights or privileges that would affect the independence or territorial integrity of China or that would deny to the subjects or citizens of any country the full enjoyment of equal opportunity in the commerce and industry of China,

"I shall be glad to have Your Excellency confirm this understanding of the agreement reached by us.

"Accept, Excellency, etc., etc., etc.

"Robert Lansing."*

The Twenty-One Demands Japan's Original Demands

Handed to His Excellency the President, Yuan Shih-Kai, by His Excellency, Mr. Hioki, the Japanese Minister to China, on January 18, 1915, translated from the Chinese text and published by the Chinese Government at Peking in June, 1915.

Group I.

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government being desirous of maintaining the general peace in Eastern Asia and further strengthening the friendly relations and good neighbourhood existing

between the two nations agree to the following articles:

Art. I. The Chinese Government engages to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions, which Germany, by virtue of treaties or otherwise, possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung.

Art. 2. The Chinese Government engages that within the Province of Shantung and along its coast no territory or island will

be ceded or leased to a third Power under any pretext.

Art. 3. The Chinese Government consents to Japan's building a railway from Chefoo or Lungkow to join the Kaiochow-Tsinanfu

Railway.

Art. 4. The Chinese Government engages, in the interest of trade and for the residence of foreigners, to open by herself as soon as possible certain important cities and towns in the Province of Shantung as Commercial Ports. What places shall be opened are to be jointly decided upon in a separate agreement.

Group II.

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government since the Chinese Government has always acknowledged the special position enjoyed by Japan in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, agree to the following articles:

Art. 1. The two Contracting Parties mutually agree that the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dalny and the term of lease of the South Manchurian Railway and the Antung-Mukden Railway

shall be extended to the period of 99 years.

^{*}Japan year Book 1919-1920 Page 464-465

Art. 2. Japanese subjects in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia shall have the right to lease or own land required either for erecting suitable buildings for trade and manufacture or for farming.

Art. 3. Japanese subjects shall be free to reside and travel in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and to engage in

business and in manufacture of any kind whatsoever.

Art. 4. The Chinese Government agree to grant to Japanese subjects the right of opening the mines in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia. As regards what mines are to be opened, they shall be decided upon jointly.

Art. 5. The Chinese Government agrees that in respect of the (two) cases mentioned herein below the Japanese Government's

consent shall be first obtained before action is taken:

(a) Whenever permission is granted to the subject of a third Power to build a railway or to make a loan with a third Power for the purpose of building a railway in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia;

(b) Whenever a loan is to be made with a third Power pledging the local taxes of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner

Mongolia, as security.

- Art. 6. The Chinese Government agrees that if the Chinese Government employs political, financial or military advisers or instructors in South Manchuria or Eastern Inner Mongolia, the Japanese Government shall first be consulted.
- Art. 7. The Chinese Government agrees that the control and management of the Kirin, Changchun Railway shall be handed over to the Japanese Government for a term of 99 years dating from the signing of this Agreement.

Group III.

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government, seeing that Japanese financiers and the Hanyehping Company, have close relations with each other at present and desiring that the common interests of the two nations shall be advanced agree to the following articles:—

- Art. I. The two Contracting Parties mutually agree that when the opportune moment arrives the Hanyehping Company shall be made a joint concern of the two nations and they further agree that without the previous consent of Japan, China shall not by her own act dispose of the rights and property of whatsoever nature of the said Company nor cause the said Company to dispose freely of the same.
- Art. 2. The Chinese Government agrees that all mines in the neighbourhood of those owned by the Hanyehping Company shall not be permitted, without the consent of the said Company, to be worked by other persons outside of the said Company; and further agrees that if it is desired to carry out any undertaking which, it is apprehended, may directly or indirectly affect the interest of the said Company, the consent of the said Company shall first be obtained.

Group IV.

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government with the object of effectively preserving the territorial integrity of China agree to the following article:—

The Chinese Government engages not to cede or lease to a third Power any harbour or bay or island along the coast of China.

Group V.

- Art. 1. The Chinese Central Government shall employ influential Japanese as advisers in political, financial and military affairs.
- Art. 2. Japanese hospitals, churches and schools in the interior of China shall be granted the right of owning land.
- Art. 3. Inasmuch as the Japanese Government and the Chinese Government have had many cases of dispute between Japanese and Chinese police to settle cases which caused no little misunderstanding, it is for this reason necessary that the police departments of important places (in China) shall be jointly administered by Japanese and Chinese or that the police departments of these places shall employ numerous Japanese, so that they may at the same time help to plan for the improvement of the Chinese Police Service.
- Art. 4. China shall purchase from Japan a fixed amount of munitions of war (say 50 % or more) of what is needed by the Chinese Government or that there shall be established in China a China-Japanese jointly worked arsenal. Japanese technical experts are to be employed and Japanese material to be purchased.

Art. 5. China agrees to grant Japan the right of constructing a railway connecting Wuchang and Kiukiang and Nanchang another line between Nanchang and Hanchow, and another between Nanchang

and Chaochou.

- Art. 6. If China needs foreign capital to work mines, build railways and construct harbour-works (including dockyards) in the Province of Fukien, Japan shall be first consulted.
- Art. 7. China agrees that Japanese subjects shall have the right of missionary propaganda in China.

Japan's Ultimatum to China.

Japan's Ultimatum delivered by the Japanese Minister to the Chinese Government, on May 7, 1915, translated from the Chinese text published at Peking in June 1915.

The reason why the Imperial Government opened the present negotiations with the Chinese Government is first to endeavour to dispose of the complications arising out of the war between Japan and Germany, and secondly to attempt to solve those various questions which are detrimental to the intimate relations of China and Japan with a view to solidifying the foundation of cordial friendship subsisting between the two countries to the end that the peace of the Far Fast may be effectually and permanently preserved. With this object in view, definite proposals were presented to the Chinese Government in January of this year, and up to to-day as many as twenty-five conferences have been held with the Chinese Government in perfect sincerity and frankness.

In the course of the negotiation the Imperial Government have consistently explained the aims and objects of the proposals in a conciliatory spirit, while on the other hand the proposals of the Chinese Government, whether important or unimportant, have been attended to without any reserve.

It may be stated with confidence that no effort has been spared to arrive at a satisfactory and amicable settlement of those questions.

The discussion of the entire corpus of the proposals was practically at an end at the twenty-fourth conference; that is on the 17th of the last month. The Imperial Government, taking a broad view of the negotiation and inconsideration of the points raised by the Chinese Government, modified the original proposals with considerable concessions and presented to the Chinese Government on the 25th of the same month the revised proposals for agreement, and at the same time it was offered that, on the acceptance of the revised proposals, the Imperial Government would, at a suitable opportunity, restore, with fair and proper conditions to the Chinese Government the Kiaochow territory, in the acquisition of which the Imperial Government had made a great sacrifice.

On the 1st of May, the Chinese Government delivered the reply to the revised proposals of the Japanese Government, which is contrary to the expectation of the Imperial Government. The Chinese Government not only did not give a careful consideration to the revised proposals but even with regard to the offer of the Japanese Government to restore Kiaochow to the Chinese Government the latter did not manifest the least appreciation of Japan's goodwill and difficulties.

From the commercial and military points of view Kiaochow is an important place, in the acquisition of which the Japanese Empire sacrificed much blood and money, and, after the acquisition the Empire incurs no obligation to restore it to China. But with the object of increasing the future friendly relations of the two countries, they went to the extent of proposing its restoration, yet to her great regret, the Chinese Government did not take into consideration the good intention of Japan and manifest appreciation of her difficulties. Furthermore, the Chinese Government not only ignored the iriendly feelings of the Imperial Government in offering the restoration of Kiaochow Pay, but also in replying to the revised proposals they even demanded its unconditional restoration; and again China demanded that Japan should bear the responsibility of paving indemnity for all the unavoidable losses and damages resulting from Japan's military operations at Kiaochow; and still further in connection with the territory of Kiaochow China advanced other demands and declared that she has the right of participation at the future peace conference to be held between Japan and Germany. Although China is fully aware that the unconditional restoration of Kiaochow and Japan's responsibility of indemnification for the unavoidable losses and damages can never be tolerated by Japan yet she purposely advanced these demands and declared that this reply was final and decisive.

Since Japan could not tolerate such demands the settlement of the other questions, however, compromising it may be, would not

be to her interest. The consequence is that the present reply of the Chinese Government is, on the whole, vague and meaningless.

Furthermore, in the reply of the Chinese Government to the other proposals in the revised list of the Imperial Government, such as South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, where Japan particularly has geographical, commercial, industrial and strategic relations, as recognized by all the nations, and made more remarkable in consequence of the two wars in which Japan was engaged, the Chinese Government overlooks these facts and does not respect Japan's position in that place. The Chinese Government even freely altered those articles which the Imperial Government, in a compromising spirit, have formulated in accordance with the statement of the Chinese Representatives thereby making the statements of the Representatives an empty talk; and on seeing them conceding with one hand and withholding with the other it is very difficult to attribute faithfulness and sincerity to the Chinese authorities.

As regards the articles relating to the employment of advisers. the establishment of schools and hospitals, the supply of arms and ammunition and the establishment of arsenals and railway concessions in South China in the revised proposals they were either proposed with the proviso that the consent of the Power concerned must be obtained, or they are merely to be recorded in the minutes in accordance with the statements of the Chinese delegates, and thus they are not in the least in conflict either with Chinese sovereignty or her treaties with the Foreign Powers, yet the Chinese Government in their reply to the proposals alleging that the proposals are incompatible with their sovereign rights and treaties with Foreign Powers, defeat the expectations of the Imperial Government. However, in spite of such attitude of the Chinese Government, the Imperial Government though regretting to see that there is no room for further negotiations, yet warmly attached to the preservation of the peace of the Far East, is still hoping for a satisfactory settlement in order to avoid the disturbance of the relations.

So, in spite of the circumstances which admitted no patience, they have reconsidered the feelings of the Government of their neighbouring Country and, with the exception of the article relating to Fukien which is to be the subject of an exchange of notes as has already been agreed upon by the Representatives of both nations, will undertake to detach the Group V, from the present negotiation and discuss it separately in the future. Therefore the Chinese Government should appreciate the friendly feeling of the Imperial Government by immediately accepting without any alteration all the articles of Groups I, II, III, and IV, and the exchange of notes in connection with Fukien province in Group V, as contained in the fevised proposals presented on the 26th of April.

The Imperial Government hereby again offers its advice and hopes that the Chinese Government, upon this advice, will give a satisfactory reply by 6 o'clock p.m. on the 9th of May. It is hereby declared that if no satisfactory reply is received before or at the specified time, the Imperial Government will take steps they may deem necessary.

China's Declaration of War on Germany and Austria-Hungary August 14, 1917

On the 9th day of the 2nd month of this year (February 9, 1917) the Government of the Republic addressed a protest to the German Government against the policy of submarine warfare inaugurated by Germany, which was considered by this Government as contrary to International Law, and imperilling neutral lives and property, and declared therein that in case the protest should be ineffectual this Government would be constrained, much to its regret, to sever diplomatic relations with Germany.

Contrary to our expectations, however, no modification was made in Germany's submarine policy after the lodging of our protest. On the contrary, the number of neutral vessels and belligerent merchantmen destroyed in an arbitrary and illegal manner was daily increasing and the lives of our citizens endangered were numerous. Under such circumstances although we might yet remain indifferent and endure suffering with the meagre hope of preserving a temporary peace, in so doing we would never be able to satisfy our people who are devoted to righteousness and sensible to disgrace, nor could we justify ourselves before our sister States which have acted without hesitation in obedience to the dictates of a sense of duty. Both here and in the friendly States, the cause of indignation was the same, and among the people of this country there could be found no difference of opinion. This Government, therefore, being compelled to consider its protest as being ineffectual, notified the German Government on the 14th day of the 3rd month last of the severance of diplomatic relations and at the same time the events taking place from the beginning up to that time were announced for the general information of the international public.

What we have desired is peace; 'what we have respected is International Law; what we have to protect are the lives and property of our own people. As we originally had no other grave causes of enmity against Germany, if the German Government had manifested repentance for the deplorable consequences resulting from its method of warfare, it might have been expected to modify that policy in view of the common indignation of the whole world. That was what we have eagerly desired, and it was the reason why we have felt reluctant to treat Germany as a common enemy. Nevertheless, during the five months following the severance of diplomatic relations, the submarine attacks have continued exactly as before. It is not Germany alone, but Austria-Hungary as well, which has adopted and pursued this policy without abatement. Not only has International Law been thereby violated but also our people are suffering injuries and losses. The most sincere hope on our part of bringing about a better state is now shattered.

Therefore, it is hereby declared, that a state of war exists between China on the one hand and Germany and Austria-Hungary on the other commencing from ten o'clock of this, the 14th day of the 8th month of the 6th year of the Republic of China.

In consequence thereof, all treaties, agreements and conventions, heretofore concluded between China and Germany, and between China and Austria-Hungary, as well as such parts of the international protocols and international agreements as concern only the relations between China and Germany and China and Austria Hungary are, in conformity with the the Law of Nations and international practice, hereby abrogated. This Government, however, will respect the Hague Conventions and its international agreements respecting the humane conduct of the war.

The chief object in our declaration of war is to put an end to the calamities of war and to hasten the restoration of peace. All our citizens will appreciate this to be our aim. Seeing, however, that our people have not yet at the present time recovered from sufferings on account of the recent political disturbances and that calamity again befalls us in the breaking out of the present war, I, the President of this Republic, cannot help having profound sympathy for our people when I take into consideration their further suffering. I would never have resorted to this step which involves fighting for the very existence of our nation, were I not driven to this unavoidable decision.

I cannot bear to think that through us the dignity of International Law should be impaired, or our position in the family of nations should be undermined or the restoration of the peace and happiness of the world should be retarded. Let the people of this entire nation do their utmost in this hour of trial and hardship in order to safeguard and develop the national existence of the Chung Hua Republic, so that we may establish ourselves amidst the family of nations and share with all mankind the prosperity and blessings drawn from our common association. Let this proclamation be published in order that it may be generally known.

Seal of the President, Peking.

August 14th, 1917.

SINO=JAPANESE MILITARY PACT OF 1918

The Sino-Japanese Military and Naval Agreement

(Signed on May 16 and 19, 1918, respectively, and made public on March 14, 1919.)

Based on the results of negotiations between the Japanese and Chinese Governments and on the strength of the documents exchanged between the two Governments, the military authorities of the two countries have each despatched delegates and concluded the following agreements:

Article 1.—The armies of Japan and China, in view of the daily spread of enemy influence in Russian territory and the threatened danger to the peace and weal of the whole of Far East, shall take joint defensive action against the enemy in order to meet the exigencies of the situation and to fulfil the obligation of the two countries to participate in the next war.

Article 2.—With regard to joint military operations, the position and interests of the two countries shall be reciprocally respected on an equal footing.

Article 3.—In opening operations under this agreement the Japanese and Chinese authorities shall order or instruct their respective troops, officials, and people in the areas of operations to attain the object of common defence against the enemy by preserving the spirit of mutual faith, friendship, and co-operation. Chinese local officials shall lend assistance to the Japanese troops in the areas of operations and refrain trom causing them any hitch in military matters, while Japanese troops shall respect the sovereignty of China and the local custom of the Chinese inhabitants and shall not cause them any inconvenience.

Article 4.—The Japanese troops who have been brought within Chinese territory for the purpose of making common defence against the enemy shall be withdrawn en bloc from the Chinese territory on the conclusion of hostilities.

Article 5.—In the case of the despatch of troops beyond the Chinese frontiers, this step, if necessary, shall be taken by the two countries in co-operation.

Article 6.—The areas and functions of military operations shall be agreed upon in a separate agreement between the military authorities of the respective countries, according to their military strength so as best to meet the object of common defence against the enemy.

Article 7.—In order to facilitate co-operative operations during the period of co-operation in military operations, the Japanese and Chinese military authorities shall practise the following stipulations:

- a. With regard to matters directly connected with military operations the military organ of either party shall send to the other officials in order to keep up communication and connection between the two.
- b. In order to ensure the rapidity and accuracy of military action and transport, facilities shall mutually be given in regard to various matters connected with land and sea transport and communication.
- c. The Commanders-in-Chief of the two countries shall decide, as occasion may arise, how military structures, such as military railways and telephones, and such temporary structures shall be abolished on the conclusion of hostilities.
- d. Arms and munitions and materials thereof necessary for the purpose of common defence against the enemy shall be reciprocally supplied to each other, the quantity of such supplies to be fixed within a limit which will not interfere with the fulfilment of the home requirements of each party,
- e. With regard to military sanitation in the areas of military operations assistance shall be given reciprocally so as to leave nothing to be desired in this respect.
- f. In the event of the assistance of military experts being needed with regard to matters directly connected with military operations, such assistance shall be given by either party at the request of the other, at whose disposal the experts sent shall be placed.

f. Organs for sending and receiving information shall be established within areas of military operations, and the maps and information necessary for military purposes shall be reciprocally exchanged.

With regard to the functions of information organs and their connections, either party shall give assistance and facilities to the other.

h. A military code for mutual use shall be agreed upon. Of the matters stipulated in this Article those which necessitate planning or execution in advance shall be agreed upon in another agreement before the execution of military operations.

Article 8.—In the event of the Chinese Eastern Railway being used for military purposes, the existing treaties shall be respected with regard to the direction, protection, control etc., of the railways, but the method of transport shall be agreed upon as occasion may arise.

Article 9.—The details necessary for the execution of the present agreement shall be agreed upon between the parties designated by the Japanese and Chinese authorities.

Article 10.—The present agreement and the details thereanent shall not be published either in Japan or China, but shall be treated as military secrets.

Article 11.—The present agreement shall be signed by the representatives of the Japanese and Chinese armies and shall become effective on being sanctioned by the respective Governments. Military operations shall be begun at a suitable opportunity after conference between the highest military authorities of the two countries.

The present agreement and all the detailed stipulations that may be made in connection with it shall lose their validity on the termination of a state of war between Japan and China on one side and Germany and Austria on the other.

Article 12.—The present agreement shall be made out in duplicate both in Japanese and Chinese, the copies to be signed after collation, and one copy shall be held by either party in witness thereof.

Date May 16, 1918, at Peking, and is signed by five Japanese delegates headed by Major General Hidejiro Saito, and eleven Chinese delegates headed by General Csin Chi-peng.

Detailed Stipulations.

Detailed Stipulations necessary for the Execution of the Military Agreement for Common Defence.

On the basis of Article 9 of the Sino-Japanese Agreement the delegates appointed by the Japanese and Chinese military authorities have made the following stipulations with reference to Articles 6 and 7 of the said agreement:

Article 1.—Japan and China shall despatch a part of their troops and take military operations in Zabaikal and Amur for the purpose of helping the Czecho-Slovaks and of stamping out the influence of Germany and Austria and others assisting them. The Chinese troops operating in those regions shall be placed under the control of the Japanese Commander in order to ensure the unity of command and the harmony of co-operation.

A part of the Chinese troops shall operate in the direction of Zabaikal from the direction of Kolon in order to take joint action with the troops operating in the direction of Zabaikal from the direction of Manchuli. If the Chinese troops so desire, a part of the Japanese troops may be sent in that direction, to be placed under the control of the Chinese Commander.

In addition to the above, China shall herself strengthen defences on the frontiers west of Central Mongolia.

Article 2.—With regard to supplies of arms and ammunition, those urgently needed shall be furnished by agreement between the respective commanders on the spot, but those not urgently needed and materials shall be supplied after negotiation between the highest supply authorities at Tokyo and Peking.

Article 3.—The Japanese troops shall afford as many facilities as possible in regard to sanitation if the Chinese so desire, and in accordance with developments the Japanese troops shall also receive assistance from China with regard to the provision of hospitals, resting stations and other things.

Article 4.—The Chinese troops and their war supplies to be transported by the South Manchuria Railway shall be sent from China to Dairen, Yinkow or Mukden, but beyond this point up to Changchun the necessary steps shall be taken by the Japanese troops. In the event of a part of the Japanese troops being included in the Chinese troops operating from the direction of Kolon towards Lake Baikal, the transport of such troops up to Taiku, Chinwantao or Mukden, and the transport beyond this point shall be undertaken by the Chinese troops. The transport over the Chinese Eastern Railway shall be entrusted to the authorities of this railway. In order to conduct negotiations with these railway authorities and to adjust the transport of Japanese, Chinese and Czecho-Slovak troops a Sino-Japanese joint organ shall be established. In the event of the Allied troops operating in these regions in future their representatives may be added to the personnel of this organ.

Article 5.—With regard to the despatch of officials for maintaining connections, the urgent requirements shall be met by conference between the respective commanders in the field, while to meet future requirements officials shall be reciprocally sent to the highest supply organs at Tokyo and Peking, and for other purposes conferences shall be held as occasion may arise, except matters on which negotiations have already been completed or which are under negotiation.

Article 6.—The arms and ammunition and materials supplied shall be paid for and the expense for the transport of soldiers and appurtenances refunded. Settlement may be effected as occasion may arise or at the end of military operations.

Article 7.—The present agreement shall be made out in duplicate both in Japanese and Chinese, the copies to be signed after collation, and one copy of each text shall be held by either party in witness thereof.

(Dated September 6, 1918, at Peking, and is signed by Lieut.-General Hidejiro Saito and by Lieut.-General Hsu Shu-cheng as Chinese delegate.)

The Naval Agreement

As the result of negotiations between the Japanese and Chinese Governments, and on the strength of the documents exchanged between the two Governments March 25, 1918, at Tokyo, the naval authorities of the two countries have reciprocally despatched delegates and agreed upon the following stipulations:

Article 1.—The Japanese and Chinese Navies, in view of the eastward spread of enemy influence and the threatened danger to the peace and weal of the whole of the Far East, shall take joint defensive action against the enemy in order to meet the present exigencies of the situation and to fulfil the obligation of the two countries to participate in the next battle in the European war.

Article 2.—With regard to joint naval operations the position and interests of the two countries shall be reciprocally respected on a footing of equality.

Article 3.—In opening operations under the present agreement, the Japanese and Chinese authorities shall each issue orders or instructions to the crews of warships, officials, and people in the areas of naval operations to preserve the spirit of faith, friendship, and co-operation and thus to attain the object of common defence against the enemy.

Article 4.—The areas and functions of operations shall be agreed upon in another agreement in accordance with the naval strength of the two countries, so that the object of common defence may be best met.

Article 5.—The Japanese and Chinese naval authorities shall carry out the following stipulations to facilitate co-operative operations during the period of such operations:

a.—With regard to matters directly connected with naval operation the naval organs of either party shall send officials to the other in order to maintain mutual communication and connection.

b.—In order to ensure the rapidity and accuracy of naval action and transport, facilities shall be reciprocally provided in regard to land and sea transport and communication.

c.—With regard to the repairing of warships, arms, naval machinery, etc., and materials necessary for such repairs assistance shall be reciprocally afforded as far as possible. This stipulation holds good with regard to munitions of war.

d.—In the event of the assistance of naval experts with regard to matters directly connected with naval operations being required either party shall send such experts at the request of the other, to be placed at the service of the latter.

e.—The Japanese and Chinese Navies shall establish information organs at such points as may be considered necessary, and shall exchange the charts and information necessary for operations.

Arrangements and provisions necessary for the purpose of ensuring the rapidity and accuracy of communication and connection shall be agreed upon between the authorities of the two countries as occasion may arise.

f.-A naval code for mutual use shall be agreed upon.

Of the matters stipulated in this article those necessitating planning or execution in advance shall be agreed upon before the carrying out of naval operations.

Article 6.—The details necessary for executing the present agreement shall be agreed upon in another agreement between the delegates to be appointed by the naval authorities of the two countries.

Article 7.—The present agreement and the detailed stipulations thereanent shall not be published either in Japan or China, but shall be treated as naval secrets.

Article 7.—The present agreement shall be signed by the representatives of the Japanese and Chinese navies, and shall take effect on being sanctioned by the Governments of the two countries. Operations shall be started at a suitable opportunity after conference between the highest naval command of the two countries.

The present agreement and all the stipulations that may arise from this agreement shall lose their validity on the termination of a state of war between Japan and China on one side and Germany and Austria on the other.

Article 9.—The present agreement is made out in duplicate both in Japanese and Chinese, the copies to be signed after collation, and one copy of each text shall be held by either party in witness thereof.

(Dated May 19, 1918, at Peking, and signed by three Japanese naval delegates headed by Rear-Admiral Masujiro Yoshida, and four Chinese delegates headed by Vice-Admiral Shen.)

Explanation of Agreement

Explanation of Naval Agreement for Common Defence.

1.—In order to meet the spirit of Article 1 of the Naval Agreement by promoting harmony in joint operations, the Japanese and Chinese Navies shall leave nothing to be desired in the conduct of operation.

2.—The following are the explanations of the stipulations in Article 5 of Naval Agreement:

The officials mentioned in the first clause shall, to meet the immediate requirements, be the naval attaches to Legations and other naval officers stationed at various places, and for other purposes arrangements will be made as occasion may arise, and the necessary officials despatched.

The materials mentioned in the third clause, such as fuel, food as well as ammunition and explosives, shall be reciprocally supplied as far as possible, and assistance rendered mutually.

The exchange of charts stipulated for in the fifth clause shall be effected at the request of either party.

In the event of assistance being necessary at ports within the areas of naval operations, the home navy attached to such ports, shall afford the required assistance. (Dated and signed the same as the Naval Agreement.)*

^{*}Japan Year Book 1919-20. Pages 473-478.

Definition as to the termination of Sino-Japanese Military Convention for the common defense against the enemy.

In accordance with Article IX, of China-Japanese Military Convention the highest commanding authorities of China and Japan have agreed upon the following understanding as to when the state of war shall be considered to have ceased, as stipulated in Section II, of Article XI, of the Convention:—

With regard to the termination of the state of war against Germany and Austria, it is understood to be the time when both China and Japan have ratified the European Peace Treaty and when both Chinese and Japanese Military forces have withdrawn from territories not belonging to China, and also when the military force of other Allied Powers have withdrawn from the same territories.

This understanding shall be written in both Chinese and Japanese, two copies each. When properly signed and sealed, each party will keep a set for future reference.

February 5, 1919

The understanding was made public May 16, 1919, by Chinese and Japanese officers.

Lost Territories and Indemnities

- 1842 China signed the Treaty of Nanking with Great Britain, to cede Hongkong, to open Shanghai, Kwangchow, Ningpo, Foochow, and Amoy, as Treaty Ports, and to pay an indemnity of \$21,000,000 Mex., on August 29, 1842.
- 1858 Russia occupied Chinese territories north of Heilungking River, on May 16, 1858.
- 1858 Great Britain attacked Kwangchow, seized the Taku Forts with the assistance of French forces, and China paid 4,000,000 Taels as an indemnity, on June 26, 1858.
- 1860 British and French forces entered Peking, forcing China to cede Kiulung to Great Britain, to open Tientsin as a Treaty Port, and to pay an indemnity of 8,000,000 Taels, on October 24, 1860.
- 1860 Vladivostok ceded to Russia on November 14,1860.
- 1876 Great Britain forced China to sign the Treaty of Chefoo, to open Ichang Wuhu, Wenchow, and Peihai as Treaty Ports, and to pay an idemnity of 200,000 Taels on September 13 1876.
- 1881 Russia annexed territories West of IIi in Sinkiang Province and exacted 9,000,000 Roubles as an indemnity on February 24, 1881.
- 1885 France forced China to recognize Annam as under the protection of France, on June 9, 1885.

- 1894 Great Britian annexed China's Dependency of Burma, on March 1, 1894.
- 1895 Japan coerced Korea to declare herself independent of China; occupied Liaotung Peninsula, Formosa, and the Pengwu Islands; and demanded an idemnity of 200,000,000 Taels on April 17, 1895.
- 1898 Germany forced China to lease Kiaochow to her for a term of ninty-nine years, on March 6, 1898.
- 1898 Russia leased Port Arthur and Talienwan for a term of ninty-nine years, on March 27, 1898.
- 1898 France forced China to lease Kwangchowwan to her for a term of ninty-nine years, on March 27, 1898.
- 1898 Great Britian forced China to lease to her Kiulung Peninsula for a term of ninty-nine years, on June 9,1885.
- 1898 Great Britain forced China to lease Weihaiwei to her for a term of ninty-nine years, on July 1, 1898.
- 1901 The Allied Troops entered Peking in their efforts to suppress the Boxer Movement, on August 14, 1901; and compelled China to sign the Treaty of Peking, and to pay an indemnity of 450,000,000 Taels, on September 7, 1901.
- 1612 Russia forced China to recognize the independence of Outer Mongolia on November 5, 1912.
- 1915 Japan delivered an ultimatum regarding the German rights in Shantung and made the Twenty-One Demands, on May 7, 1915.
- 1915 China yielded to Japan and agreed to the Twenty-One Demands on May 9, 1915.
- 1919 The Paris Peace Conferenced decided to transfer the former German rights in Shantung to Japan, on April 30, 1919.*

Treaty of Friendship Between the Republic of China And the Republic of Bolivia.

His Excellency the President of the Republic of China and His Excellency the President of the Republic of Bolivia, animated by the desire to establish bonds of friendship between the two countries, have resolved to conclude a Treaty of Friendship and have for that purpose named as their plenipotentiaries the following:

His Execellency the President of the Republic of China: His Excellency Monsieur Tchuankingko, charge d'affaires of China at Tokyo.

His Excellency the President of the Republic of Bolivia: His Excellency Monsieur le Docteur Don Victor Munoz Reyes, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Bolivia at Tokyo.

They, having communicated to each other their full powers respectively, proceeded and signed the following articles:

^{*}From a Chinese publication.

ARTICLE I

There will be perpetual peace and unalterable friendship between China and Bolivia and between their peoples.

ARTICLE II

The Chinese Government and the Bolivian Government will have the right to appoint diplomatic agents, consuls-general, consuls, vice-consuls and consular agents, who will reside in the capital and the principal cities of the two countries, where the residence of these foreign agents is permitted; they will enjoy the same rights, privileges, favors, immunities and exemptions which are accorded or may be accorded to diplomatic or consular agents of the most favored nations.

The consuls-general, consuls, vice-consuls and consular agents should obtain, in order to enter upon their functions, in the usual manner the exequatur of the country by which they have been appointed to exercise those functions.

The two contracting parties will abstain from naming as consulsgeneral, consuls, vice-consuls and consular agents, merchants, excepting in the positions of honorary consuls, with the privileges and powers which honorary consuls of other powers enjoy.

ARTICLE III

This treaty will be effective as soon as exchange of ratifications will have taken place.

ARTICLE IV

The present treaty will be translated into Spanish, Chinese and French, four copies being made in each language. In case of difference of interpretation created in the Spanish or Chinese texts, the difference will be settled by the French text, which will be binding upon both contracting parties.

ARTICLE V

The present treaty will be ratified by His Excellency the President of the Republic of China and by His Excellency the President of Bolivia, conforming to the legislation in force and the instruments of ratification will be exchanged as soon as possible. In pursuance of which faith the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the present treaty and affixed their seals thereunto.

^{*}This is the first Chinese Treaty which does not grant to the foreign power extraterritorial rights in China. Similar treaties are now being arranged with Greece and the Central European States.

FOREIGN TROOPS IN CHINA.

Origin of Their Presence

Foreign troops in China are of two classes: (1) those who remain in China under the sanction of treaty and (2) those whose presence is unwarranted.

- (1) In their note of December 22, 1920, communicating to the Cainese Government the peace terms consequent on the Boxer uprising. the foreign Powers demanded, among other things, 'the right of each Power to maintain a permanent guard in the quarter for the defence of its Legation." This right was granted in China's reply of January 16, 1901, and confirmed in the final Protocol of September 7, 1901. the same instrument there was granted to the Powers, signatories thereof the right of occupying certain points to be determined by agreement between them for keeping the communication free between the Capital and the Sea." For this purpose a number of points along the Peking-Mukden Railway were specified for occupation by foreign troops. All the foreign Powers, signatories of the Protocol of 1901. except Spain, have stationed troops at one or more of these points. these Powers being Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Italy, Japan, Russia, and the United States. The total number of these foreign troops fluctuated before the war around 9,000. While the troops of some of the Powers were withdrawnafter the outbreak of the war in 1914, and while the German and Austrian troops were interned by China on the rupture of diplomatic relations with the Central Powers, those of the other Powers still remain.
- (2) Foreign troops are present also in several other places in China, and these, unlike the Legation Guards and the troops stationed along the Peking-Mukden Railway, remain on Chinese soil, not by sanction of treaty, but against the repeated protests of the Chinese Government
- (a) In Manchuria there are stationed Japanese and Russian troops. While the Chinese Eastern Railway Agreement of 1896 between China and the Russo-Chinese Bank provided in Article 5 that the Chinese Government "will take measures for the protection of the line and the men employed thereon" the Russian Government, in its subsequent charter to the Chinese Eastern Railway Company, stated that 6the preservation of law and order on the lands assigned to the railway and its appurtenances shall be confided to police agents appointed by the Company," and that "the Company shall for this purpose draw up and establish police regulations." Under these provisions, railway guards were maintained by the Company. In the course of constructing the line, however, Russia despatched troops to Mancharia, on the pretext of protecting the railway. The outbreak of Boxers in Northern China gave her occasion to increase her military forces in Manchuria. Her troops occupied Newchuang, Mukden and all the important points along the Chinese Eastern Railway. Although

by her agreement of April 8, 1920, with China, Russia undertook to effect a complete withdrawal of all her troops within a stipulated period, she refused to carry out her undertaking fully. Instead she merely moved her troops into the territory occupied by the Railway Company and in addition occupied ports at the mouth of the Liao River and the towns of Fenghwangcheng and Antung. Then follow the fruitless Russo-Japanese negotiations, followed in turn by the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War, which was fought on the soil of Manchuria.

By the Treaty of Portsmouth concluding the war, Russia transferred to Japan the railway from Port Arthur to Changchun, Although in Article III of the Treaty, Japan and Russia mutually engaged to evacuate Manchuria completely and simultaneously except the leased territory of Liaotung Peninsula, the contracting parties, in an additional article, reserved "to themselves the right to maintain guards to protect their respective railway lines in Manchuria, "the number of such guards not to "exceed fifteen per kilometer, and within that maximum number the commanders of the Japanese and Russian Armies "to fix by common accord," the number of such guards to be employed as small as possible while having in view the actual requirements." Thus the Japanese troops and guards came to be stationed along the now called South Manchurian Railway.

While China, by the Agreement of December 22, 1905 with Japan, agreed to the transfer from Russia to Japan of the leasehold rights, railway privileges and mining concessions which Russia had enjoyed before the Russo-Japanese War, the provisions of the said additional article relating to the stationing of railway guards were not assented to by China.

On the contrary, in Article II of the Agreement China expressed an earnest desire "to have the Japanese and Russian troops and railway guards in Manchuria withdrawn as soon as possible, "and the Japanese Government, "in the event of Russia agreeing to the withdrawal of her railway guards, or in case other proper measures are agreed to between China and Russia, consent to take similar steps accordingly."

These railway guards have not been withdrawn. While the Chinese troops have, since the outbreak of political disturbance in Russia, taken the place of the Russian guards in the protection of the Chinese Eastern Railway and the line from Harbin to Changchun, the Japanese railway guards along the South Manchurian Railway and the railway from Mukden to Antung still remain.

- (b) Since 1909 the Japanese Government have stationed some troops at their Consulates in such places as Liutowkow in the Province of Fengtien and Yenki in the Province of Kirin, and beginning with 1911 the Russians, following the Japanese precedent, also put military guards at their Consulates at such places as Kirin and Yenki.
- (c) On the outbreak of the Revolution in China in the autumn of 1911 Japan despatched a battalion of about 600 men to Hankow, 800 miles up the Yangtze River, on the ground of protecting Japanese residents in that city. These have been stationed quite outside of the

Treaty Port limits and have at times numbered as many as 1500. Notwithstanding the repeated requests of the Chinese Government of their withdrawal, these troops still remain. They are equipped with a company of machine guns and now quartered in barracks specially built since, capable of holding 2500 men and provided with a wireless station.

- (d) There are also Japanese troops at Liaoyuan, on the border of Inner Mongolia. These were first sent in 1914. In August of that year a party of Chinese police were engaged in a fight against the bandits in Chengtu, far away in the interior of Manchuria. A company of Japanese troops came to pass by the place, and mistaking the Chinese police to be firing against them, opened fire, killing three policemen and a Chinese passer-by, but besides wounding ten others. Two Japanese were also wounded, but it could not be ascertained whether the wounds were inflicted by the police or by the bandits. On being apprised of this incident, the Japanese Consul despatched troops to Liaoyuan. Although the incident was considered closed by China granting redress, which included the punishment of the police, reprimand of the police officers and an indemnity of \$12,000, the Japanese troops have not yet been withdrawn.
- (e) After the outbreak of the war in Europe in 1914, Japan declared war on Germany and proceeded to attack Tsingtao. For this purpose she landed troops at Lungkow, 150 miles north of their destination. These Japanese forces, on the pretext of military necessity, seized the entire railway from Tsingtao to Chinan in the heart of the Province, occupied all the important stations on the line, and compelled Chinese troops to withdraw from its vicinity. Although the military operations entirely ceased in November, 1914, and Tsingtao was reopened to trade on January 1, 1915, the Japanese troops have remained in the Province against the protest of the Chinese Government, about 2,200 Japanese troops are stationed along the railway.
- (f) At Kashgar in the Province of Sinkiang, formerly known as Chinese Turkestan, Great Britain in the year 1896 established a postal agency with several messengers for carrying despatches between this place and India. Five years later the Russians also established a postal agency in the same place protected by over ten mounted guards. Since 1900 the number of Russian troops was raised to 150. In 1918 Great Britain despatched 30 Indian soldiers to this city stating that they were intended for the protection of the British Consulate there.





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